



Frontispiece—Ellis' *Germany*.

Charlemagne in his Cloister-School.

**YOUNG PEOPLE'S HISTORY
of
GERMANY**

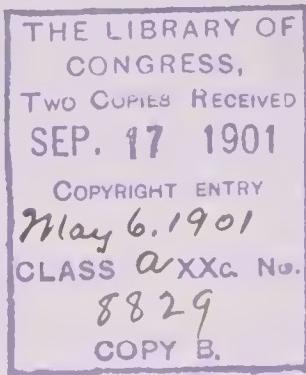


BY
EDWARD S. ELLIS, A. M.

With One Hundred and Fifteen Illustrations



PHILADELPHIA
HENRY ALTEMUS COMPANY



IN UNIFORM STYLE
BY EDWARD S. ELLIS, A.M.

YOUNG PEOPLES' HISTORY OF UNITED STATES
with 164 illustrations

YOUNG PEOPLES' HISTORY OF ENGLAND
with 164 illustrations

YOUNG PEOPLES' HISTORY OF GERMANY
with 115 illustrations

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with 80 illustrations

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INTRODUCTION.

It is a long, varied and wonderfully interesting story from the dim legends of the shaggy savages who roamed through the sombre wilderness between the Alps and the Baltic two thousand years ago to that of Germany to-day, with its population of more than fifty millions and her proud eminence among the foremost Powers of the globe.

It is a record of valiant achievement on the battlefield, of patient suffering under grinding tyranny, of grim resolution, of heroic endeavor, and of grand triumphs in art, science, literature, diplomacy and patriotic toil, sacrifice and daring.

The story, like that of any people, is as instructive as impressive. In the brief space at our command we have striven to set forth such leading facts that the child may gain an intelligent idea of the chief incidents in the history of the German Empire from the dawn of its first authentic records to the present time. It is laborious work to winnow the wheat from the chaff, but it is the hope of the author that a spirit of inquiry may be aroused in the young student which will lead him to delve deeper into those mines of knowledge and research which offer certain and abundant reward for all such labor.

E. S. E.



Imperial Costume, end of Fifteenth Century.
From the Tomb of the Emperor Louis of Bavaria in the
Cathedral at Munich.

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ALTEMUS' YOUNG PEOPLE'S HISTORY OF GERMANY.

CHAPTER I.

EARLY HISTORY OF GERMANY. 113 B. C.—21 A. D.

THERE were several striking facts about Dick Hardin, who shared my seat with me in the old Edenton School, when he and I were boys. He was the homeliest, most mischievous and the brightest lad among us all.

He had red hair, big, bulging eyes, and was so freckled that the brown spots showed on his ears and the back of his neck. He never studied half as much as the rest of us, for there was no need of his doing so, since there was not a single subject in which he was not far ahead of us all. He was good-natured, always ready to help others in their lessons, and, naturally, was a favorite with all, including his teacher. I haven't the space, or I should tell you of some of his pranks, which many a time provoked a smile from the good Mr. Black, even when uttering words of reproof, for Dick, so far as I was able to learn, was never guilty of a mean or unkind act or word.

One of Dick's most astonishing talents was his skill in drawing. He was a natural artist, and his work on the blackboard was a feast for the eye. Mr. Black was no mean artist himself, and when he began teaching us geography by having us reproduce maps on the blackboard from memory, we admired his skill, and I was sure none of the boys or girls ever would be able to equal it; but within two weeks Dick surpassed him, as the teacher was the first to admit. His taste enabled him to make the most beautiful combination of the differently-colored chalks, and when he finished his picture of any country, no matter how complicated its boundaries and natural features, it was perfect. Great as might be the need of the blackboards in the solution of our problems, there was always one map left standing, with the written command "To Remain" prominently displayed. This map was for the benefit of visitors, of whom we had plenty, and the work thus preserved was invariably from the hand of Dick Hardin.

Now, you are wondering what all this has to do with the history of Germany. Wait a few minutes and you shall learn.

One day Mr. Black addressed Dick :

"Richard, what is the best method of drawing a map of Germany?"

Without a smile on his broad, freckled face, he answered :

"Take four pieces of crayon; break each into fine bits; stand six feet and a half from the blackboard, and throw the pieces of chalk at it, and they'll make a good map of Germany."

"I am inclined to think you are half right," remarked the teacher, trying to repress a smile.

If the words of Dick were used to-day, they would lose much of their force, for the German Empire is as "solid" as any of the neighboring countries; but at the time to which I refer it was so cut up and subdivided into States and political divisions that its study was a perplexity, beyond the capacity of all except Dick Hardin. He alone was able to reproduce its features correctly on the blackboard. All the rest of the class shuddered with fear lest the drawing of a map of that country should be assigned to us.

This incident comes back to me, now that I have sat down to write the history of the German Empire; for, if I were to give you the particulars from the earliest known times to the present, they would be as intricate, complex, involved and confusing as the picture of the face of the country used to be. No matter how faithfully you might study it, the chief part would be a jumble in your memory. Moreover, the space at my command, fortunately for you, will not permit such an elaboration, and I am glad of it.

Yet the history of Germany is wonderfully interesting and instructive, and it shall be my aim in the following pages to tell you the most important facts, and so to present them that you will gain a clear idea of the birth, growth, misfortunes, good fortunes, trials, triumphs and development of one of the greatest powers in Christendom.

With this introduction, let us waste no more time.

The origin of the German nation, like that of all other nations, is lost in the shadows of antiquity. No

historian as yet has been able to tell when the first people of Germany left Asia, the cradle of the human race, nor what causes led them to seek the regions of the North and make their homes there. Those people were savages, who kept no written records, nor have any of their songs or traditions come down to us. It follows, therefore, that the authentic history of Germany must commence at a date when probably their ancestors had been living for many centuries in that section of Europe.

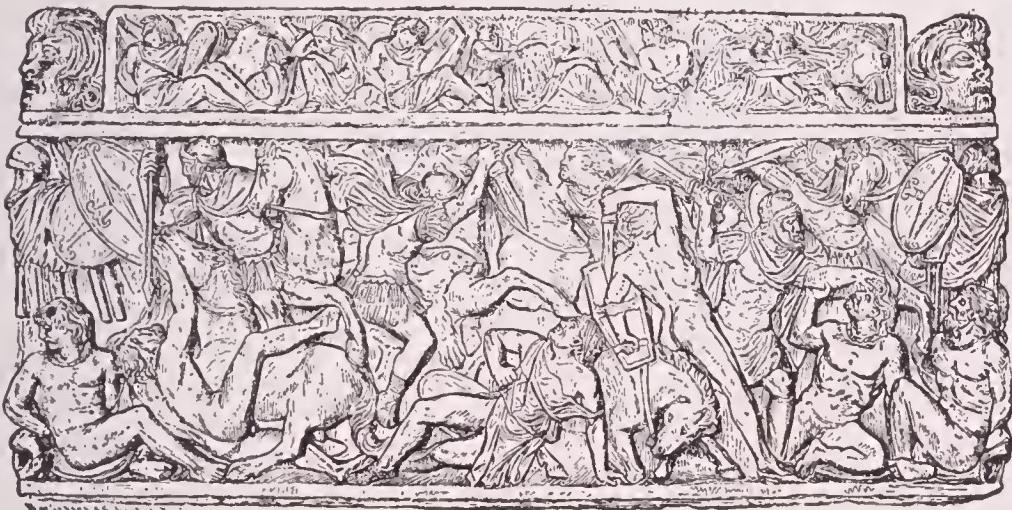
It is quite certain that the ancient Germans dwelt in the immense forests which stretched from the Alps to the shores of the Baltic, and that the people were divided into many tribes, such as the Suevi, the Alemanni, the Cimbri, and the Teutons, the Saxons, the Longobards, the Chatti, the Cherusci, and others.

In the year 113 B. C. the Cimbrians and Teutonians made an incursion into Roman territory, and by thus coming in contact with civilized and educated people they were "put on record," so to speak, and something definite was learned of them.

The Cimbrians were originally inhabitants of Jutland, tall of stature, with fair hair, blue eyes, and possessed of great strength. When they poured through the Tyrolese Alps, and invaded Roman territory, they numbered several hundred thousand, and they brought with them their wives, children and movable property. Alarmed by this amazing invasion, a powerful Roman army met them in battle at Noreia, between the Adriatic and the Alps, where in a furious battle the Romans were beaten.

The news of this defeat caused dismay in Rome.

The barbarians wore breastplates of iron, and helmets crowned with the heads of wild beasts, while the white shields which they carried gleamed with dazzling brightness in the sunlight. Upon first meeting their foes, they hurled double-headed spears, and at close quarters fought with short, heavy swords. The women encouraged their husbands and sons by shouts and war songs, and were as fierce as the warriors themselves.



Cimbrians and Romans in Battle.

From a Roman Sarcophagus: Showing that the German Tribes threw off their clothes while in battle.

Instead of advancing upon Rome, the Cimbrians and Teutons moved westward along the Alps, passed into Gaul, and gained for the time possession of a part of Spain. For ten years they plundered at will, then went home, and soon made preparations for again invading Italy. The Roman consul, Marius, who marched against them, found that the formidable force had divided, so as to cross the

Alps by two different roads. It was in the year 102 B. C. that he attacked the barbarians at Aix (*akes*), and, although they must have numbered nearly two hundred thousand, Marius almost annihilated them.

The Roman army made its way through the Alps, and the following year encountered the Cimbrians at Aquae Sextiae. They were drawn up in a square, the sides of which were nearly three miles long. In the centre of this square the wagons were arranged in the form of a fortress for the women and children. The trained Roman legions broke through the square and utterly routed the barbarians. The women defended their castles with desperate bravery, and when they saw all was lost killed their children and then themselves. A few thousand prisoners were taken; but this was the last appearance of the Cimbrians in Italy for five hundred years.

We must now make a leap of a hundred and fifty years to a time when the Germans in Gaul numbered more than 100,000, most of whom were the Suevi, a daring tribe, whose home was in the southwest of Germany. The other tribes, finding the Suevi too powerful for them, asked Julius Cæsar to help expel them. Cæsar had been waiting for a good opportunity to invade Gaul, and he promptly responded, and made thorough work of it. In the year 51 B. C., Gaul was completely conquered and turned into a Roman province. Thus the people gained the benefit of Roman culture and civilization.

In the years 12 to 9 B. C., Drusus, the Roman commander on the Rhine, determined to make Germany a Roman province, just as Cæsar had done with Gaul. He joined



The Battle of Aquæ Sextiæ.

Teuton Women Defending their Wagon Castles.

3—*Ellis' Germany.*

the Rhine with the Zuyder Zee, so as to have direct communication with the North Sea, and made many forays against the tribes living between the Rhine and the Weser. It is said that in the year 10 B. C., he had fully fifty fortresses along the Rhine, the most important being opposite Mayence, which to-day forms the town of Cassel. He also constructed the Drusus Canal, running from Mayence across the mountains of the Taunus and through the territory of the Chatti. He led his invincible army as far as the Elbe, never before reached by the Roman legions, but was killed by an accidental fall from his horse.

Although Germany was looked upon as already secure, the Roman commander, Sentius Saturnius, won the people by his tact and diplomacy. Merchants opened markets in many places, and the Germans were fascinated by the new culture around them. They were profoundly impressed by the military superiority of the Romans, and thousands of German youths enlisted in the Roman army. Thus peace promised a greater victory than was gained by war.

But Tiberius, the Roman emperor, resolved to subjugate the Alemanni, a powerful tribe living in the country along the Danube. Success in this meant that all the land between the Rhine, the Elbe and the Danube would become Roman territory, and there would be an end to German freedom. When the plans, however, were completed, Tiberius was called home, and that portion of Germany was left undisturbed for the time.

Quinctilius Varus was commander-in-chief in northwest Germany, where the Germans were soon groaning under the intolerable tyranny of Roman laws, that not only

wrung grinding taxes from them, but punished slight offences with death. Varus hoped by this frightful harshness to crush the spirit of the people, but he only intensified the feeling of nationality, which has always been one of the most marked features of the German character. All the tribes between the Rhine and the Weser united under Hermann, Prince of the Cherusci. This brave and talented youth had learned Roman methods of warfare in Italy, and, burning with the wrongs of his people, he was the one of all others to lead in the struggle for German independence.

While the Roman army was encamped on the banks of the Weser, Varus was called away to suppress a revolt in a distant quarter. He was warned that this was a plot for his undoing; but, full of self-confidence, he paid no heed to wise counsels, and took the shortest route through the Teutoburgian forest, which was precisely what the Germans had planned and were waiting for. In the sombre depths of the swamps, mountain defiles and wilderness, he was assailed incessantly on all sides by the Germans throughout several days and nights. When all hope was gone, Varus killed himself by falling on his sword, many of his officers imitating his example. Thus the great Roman army was annihilated and Germany freed from the foreign yoke.

This disaster was a fearful blow to Roman prestige and spread consternation in Rome. Several attempts were made to avenge the defeat, but the resistance of the Germans was so desperate that the task was finally given over. It was on one of these raids, in 15 A. D., that Thusnelda,

the wife of Hermann, was carried off by Germanicus the Roman general. A son was born to her in captivity, and the two figured in the sad procession given Germanicus in honor of his bravery in Germany; but beyond that mournful episode history is silent regarding the unfortunate mother and son. Germanicus was sent by Tiberius to Syria, where he died so suddenly that it is to be feared it was the result of poison. The Roman Emperor declared that enough blood had been shed in Germany, which henceforth was to be left to itself.

This was a wise decision, but it proved a woful thing for Germany, for as soon as the danger of foreign conquest was removed the tribes began wrangling among themselves. Such quarrels are always the most cruel and the most vindictive. Hermann, sometimes called Arminius, was the Washington of his country, and is considered to have well won the title of Deliverer of Germany. But because of his lofty character, genius and patriotism, he was envied by base spirits, and when only thirty-six years old was assassinated, in 21 A. D., by one of his own relatives, his loss being irreparable. Of him Tacitus says:

“Undoubtedly he was the liberator of Germany, having dared to grapple with the Roman power, not in its beginnings, like other kings and commanders, but in the maturity of its strength. He was not always victorious in battle, but in *war* was never subdued. He still lives in the songs of the barbarians, unknown to the annals of the Greeks, who only admire that which belongs to themselves—nor celebrated as he deserves by the Romans, who, in praising the olden times, neglect the events of the later years.”



Thusnelda Presented to Germanicus.

Hermann, Prince of the Cherusci, after his victory over Varus, carried off Thusnelda, daughter of Segestes, from her father's house and married her. Afterwards she was taken prisoner by her father and presented by him to Germanicus. Still later Germanicus defeated Hermann in two battles, and then retired from Germany.

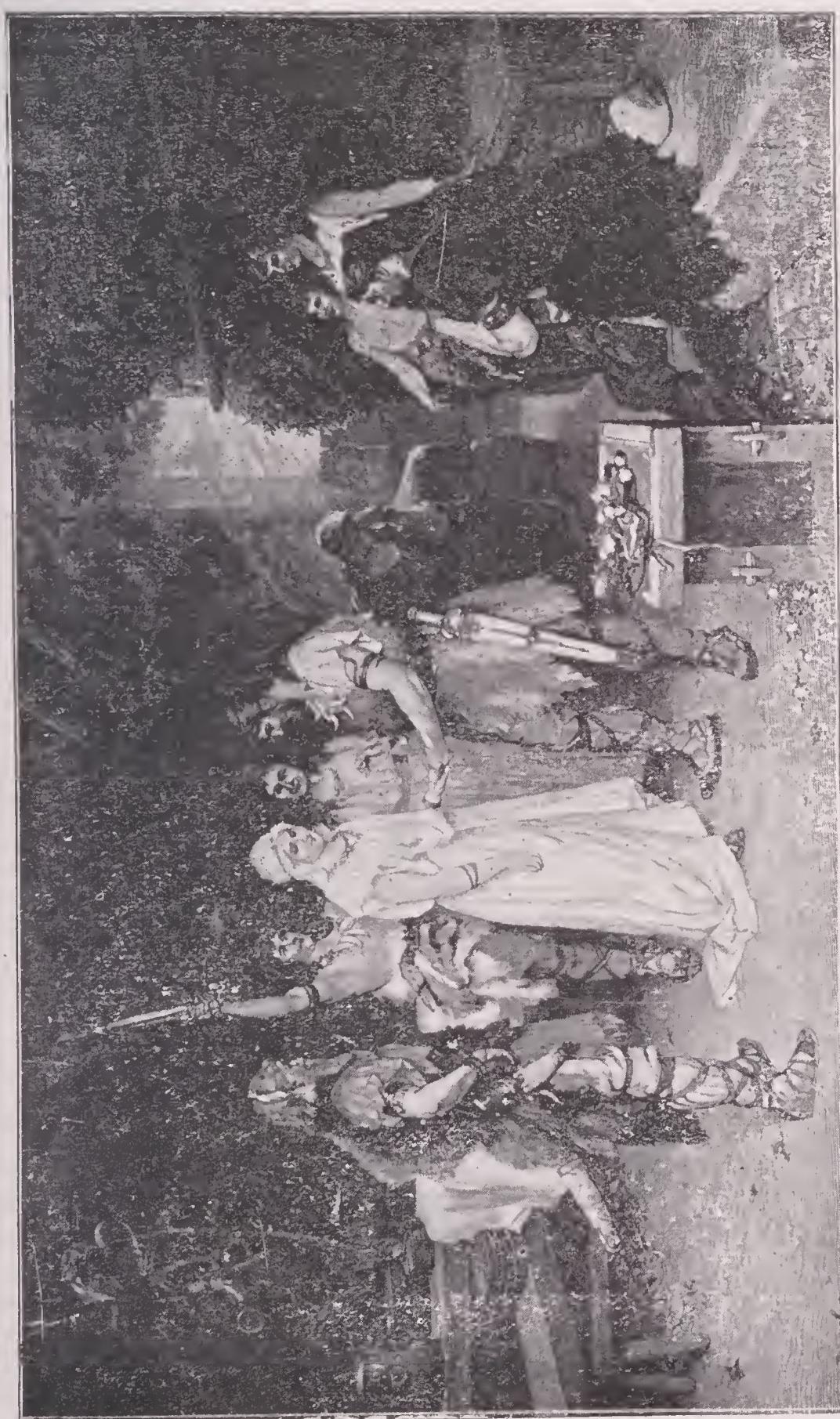
CHAPTER II.

THE WARRING NATIONS. A. D. 21-455.

I HAVE told you of the splendid physical development of the ancient Germans, and Tacitus, the Roman historian, advised his degenerate countrymen to imitate many of their hardy virtues. Among them the sanctity of marriage was rigidly upheld, the women were held in the highest honor, the youths were trained in private virtues, to be faithful unto death and to be hospitable to every one.

But they had their failings, as do every people. The chief of these were their indolence, fondness for drink and their love of gaming. They would stake all their possessions on the throw of dice, and sometimes barter away their own freedom. The women were never present at those gambling tests. As I have shown, they were the equal of the men in energy and courage, and always accompanied their husbands in battle, where they took care of the wounded and urged on the men by their cries and songs.

I have mentioned the honor which they showed to the marriage relation. No ancient people of whom we have record equalled them in that respect. The ceremony consisted in the man giving the bride a horse or yoke of oxen, while she gave him arms or armor in return. A wife or husband who disregarded the marriage vow was punished with death.



Old German Wedding.

The German wife lived in high honor, not only as the lady and mistress of the household, but as the companion, counselor and friend of her husband. The German home life was held sacred, the children of freemen and of slaves grew up together, and, in the absence of a priesthood, the father exercised the priestly office for his household.

The old Germans tilled the ground and hunted in the forest, being mostly clad in furs, but the women wore linen garments, spun and woven by themselves. The people were divided into freemen, serfs and slaves. Each family had its own strict laws, and, like the Boers in South Africa, preferred solitary homesteads or scattered villages to towns. A number of families formed a "district," or in some cases they were united in "hundreds" instead of districts, each of which managed its own affairs as a little republic, yet every one had a leader, and all the districts met at the time of the new or full moon as a "General Assembly of the People."

The gods which the Germans worshipped were those that represented the powers of nature, and their mythology was that of the Scandinavians, with a slight variation. Their chief deity was Woden, or Odin, the god of the sky and Creator, and next to him came his two sons, Donar, or Thor, the god of thunder, and Zin, or Thiu, the god of war. Donar, with his flaming beard and giant hammer, was the Thor of the Scandinavians. Hertha was the goddess of the earth, and was worshipped with secret rites. At the religious festivals the sacrifices were sometimes those of human beings. Even after Christianity was introduced, some of these festivals were celebrated, but they were changed to the Christian anniversaries of Christmas, Easter and Whitsuntide.

Following the death of Hermann, it may be said that for a long time the relations of the Roman Empire and Germany were that of a truce. No serious attempt was made to extend Roman sway beyond the banks of the

Rhine and the Danube, while the German tribes were so weakened by their civil wars that Rome had nothing to fear from them. Hermann's own tribe, the Cherusci,



Woden, or Odin.

became so diminished that it soon ceased to exist as a separate people. The Emperors of Rome from Vespasian to Marcus Aurelius (A. D. 70 to 181) cultivated the military

spirit among the Germans, many of whom served under the Roman eagles. German legions were formed and took part in the invasions of Spain, Greece and the East. For about a century after Vespasian became emperor there was no important interruption of the peaceful relations between the two races. Inevitably changes grew up in the German habits, customs, tastes and manner of living, for this contact with Rome could not fail to make it so. They began to live in villages; they used stone as well as wood in building their houses and fortresses, and gave more attention to tilling the ground than to hunting and fishing. The extinction of many smaller tribes taught them the necessity of union, for it may be said that danger always threatened them, and the history of Rome itself was the most impressive of all object lessons.

About the year 166, all the German tribes from the Danube to the Baltic combined in a great movement against the Roman Empire. The war was long and fierce and bloody, but Rome succeeded in restoring the ancient boundary between her dominions and Germany, though at a cost which she could not again afford. Corruption, vice and effeminacy were eating out the vitals of Rome, but through all this decay Germany preserved her simplicity, vigor, morality and energy. Then ensued a series of internal changes, of which we have no record, but which resulted in a union of all the leading tribes. Could we know how all this was brought about, it would be interesting, for when the Germans emerge from the shadows in the third century, the strange fact appears that nearly all the tribes that had taken a leading part in earlier events had disap-

peared. Instead of more than a score of them, we find only four leading nationalities, with two more inferior, but still independent, branches.

Now, since each of these nationalities has a leading part to play in the subsequent history of Germany, let us fix the chief facts concerning them in our minds.

The Alemanni first appeared along the Main, thence pressed south, until they occupied the greater part of southwestern Germany and eastern Switzerland to the Alps, where their descendants still live.

The Franks are first heard of on the lower Rhine, but they soon occupied a great part of Belgium and Westphalia. The chiefs who ruled them were already known as kings, and their authority was hereditary.

The Saxons were one of the original tribes that settled in Holstein, and we now find them occupying most of the territory between the Hartz Mountains and the North Sea, from the Elbe westward to the Rhine.

The Goths possess a peculiar interest. According to their own traditions, they were settled in Sweden before the Greek navigators found them on the southern shore of the Baltic in 330 B. C. The present Scandinavian race is probably descended from the Goths who did not leave their homes. The Baltic Goths gradually made their way up the Vistula, thence eastward along the Carpathians to the Black Sea, thus securing a broad belt of territory separating the rest of Europe from the Slavonic races which occupied Central Russia. They absorbed so many tribes and occupied so extensive territory that they divided into the Ostrogoths and Visigoths, or East-Goths and West-Goths.

The Thuringians had only a brief national existence, occupying as they did all of Central Germany, from the Hartz mountains south to the Danube. The Burgundians came from Prussia, first settling in a part of what is now Franconia, but soon took possession of the country on the west bank of the Rhine, between Strasburg and Mayence.

Moved by that strange upheaval and mysterious impulse known as the Migration of Nations, the various nationalities began moving slowly toward the destinations which nature seemed to have selected for them. Thus the Alemanni drifted to Gaul; the Saxons to the North Sea and its adjoining islands; the Goths to the lands south of the Danube, and the Franks, in the northeast of Gaul, were soon in the heart of the country itself.

During the fourth century the Alemanni several times invaded Italy, but were driven back by the Roman legions. Then the Alemanni united with the Suevi, and settled in the southwest of Germany, which took the name of Suabia (*Swā'bi-a*). You have learned in the history of England and France how the Saxons, first scourging the coast of France, crossed over to Britain, which the Romans, after ruling for five centuries, had left to the cruel mercies of the Picts and Scots. Unable to beat back these enemies, the Britons asked the Saxons to help them. They did so, and then found Britain so much to their liking that they remained and were soon joined by hordes from North Germany, who conquered all of Britain. The seven kingdoms founded by the Saxons were known as the Heptarchy, and you learned all about them in the history of England.

The Burgundians, coming originally from the Oder,

settled in the fifth century on the Upper Rhine, and the Vandals, from the shores of the Baltic, made their home in Hungary. Then they moved into Italy, Gaul, and finally to Spain. The province of Andalusia was formerly Vandalusia, and was called after these Vandals. This restless people next entered Africa, in the year 420, at the invitation of the discontented Roman governor there. Conquering the whole of the northern coast, they founded for a century a flourishing kingdom, with Carthage as the chief city. The Vandal leader was Genseric, one of the great men of his times, who ruled from '428 to 477. Wherever those Vandals went their devastations were so dreadful that their name remains a byword and reproach to this day.

A new and terrible enemy appeared in Europe. They were the Huns, a Mongolian race from Central Asia. They were small of stature, hideous of countenance, but hardy and fierce, knowing or caring nothing for religion, leading a wandering life, and held in terror by every one who had ever seen or heard of them. So vast was their number and so ferocious were they in warfare that all Europe trembled. They had no difficulty in conquering the Alani and the Ostrogoths, while the Visigoths, dreading the same fate, asked the Roman Emperor Valens to unite them to the Roman Empire. The request was granted, and a large number of Visigoths entered Bulgaria, but were treated so harshly by the greedy officials that they were angered and rose in rebellion. They defeated the Roman general in 378, then pushed southward to Constantinople, and were only persuaded to turn back by

costly bribes and favorable treaties. Having learned their own strength, the Visigoths repeatedly renewed their attacks, and finally, under their famous king, Alaric,

made their way as far as Sparta in the south of Greece. Advancing into Italy, Alaric met with defeat at Pollentia and made a treaty, but in 408 entered Italy a second time. You will remember that at the date named the once mighty empire of Rome was decayed, with little of its former power and glory remaining. The Romans preferred to pay rather than fight, and the haughty Alaric received an enormous ransom; but he could not make satisfactory terms with the Roman

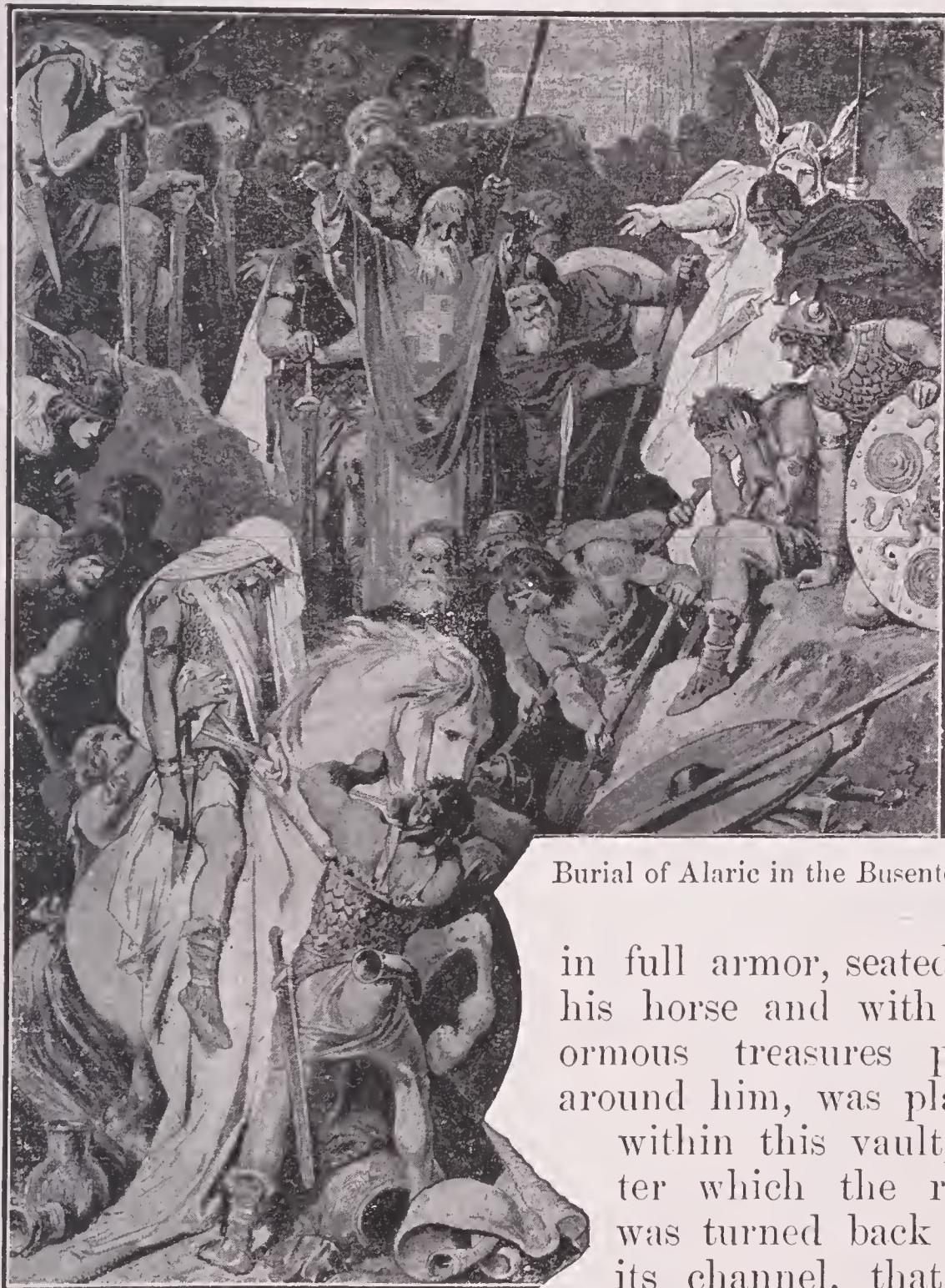


Stilicho and Wife: from his Sarcophagus at Milan.

Stilicho Defeated Alaric at Pollentia in 403.

Emperor, and he appeared before Rome again in 409. The gates of the Eternal City, which had not known a hostile tread for eight hundred years, were opened by treachery, and for six days Rome was given over to pillage and plunder. All that was respected was the churches and sacred vessels belonging to them.

Alaric began his preparations for conquering Sicily, but was stricken by mortal illness and died when only thirty-four years old. He received a strange burial. The river Busento was diverted from its course, and in the dry bed a grave was made of solid masonry. The dead king,



Burial of Alaric in the Busento.

in full armor, seated on his horse and with enormous treasures piled around him, was placed within this vault, after which the river was turned back into its channel, that no

man might know where the mighty Alaric was buried. The Huns settled in Hungary, where they united under

the terrific Attila, or Etzel, who called himself "The Scourge of God." He was small of stature, with a large head and fierce eyes, a perfect master of war as it was then understood, and a despot who by the nod of his head could settle the question of life and death for any number of subjects, no matter how humble or how exalted. As I have said, he was dreaded by all nations, his name inspiring terror throughout Asia and as far even as China. That country as well as Persia sued for his friendship. He conquered nation after nation, and all were forced to follow him, for which he allowed them to retain their own language and customs.

At the head of a prodigious host, numbering almost a million men, Attila invaded Burgundy and laid it waste. The capital, Worms, and other cities were burned, and he marched as far as Orleans without receiving any check. When he laid siege to the city, the Romans, Visigoths and other nations resolved to make a final stand against this terrifying barbarian.

In the year 451, on the Catalaunian Plains, near Châlons (*sha-long*), on the Marne, was fought one of the great battles of the world, for it decided the fate of Europe. The Huns were beaten, and Attila was forced to retire across the Rhine. The Scourge of God withdrew sullenly, but in the following year he laid waste the north of Italy, and had set out for Rome when he was bought off by an enormous ransom, with which he returned to Hungary. He died unexpectedly in 452, and with his death the Hunnish Empire crumbled to pieces, none of his sons being strong enough to hold it together. Gradually, as



the years passed, the Huns themselves became absorbed by the surrounding nations. Then the West Roman Empire fell, the Vandals, under Genseric, were called from Africa, and for two weeks Rome was pillaged without mercy. All the towns of the Campania were laid waste, and the Vandals went back to Carthage, staggering under their loads of booty.

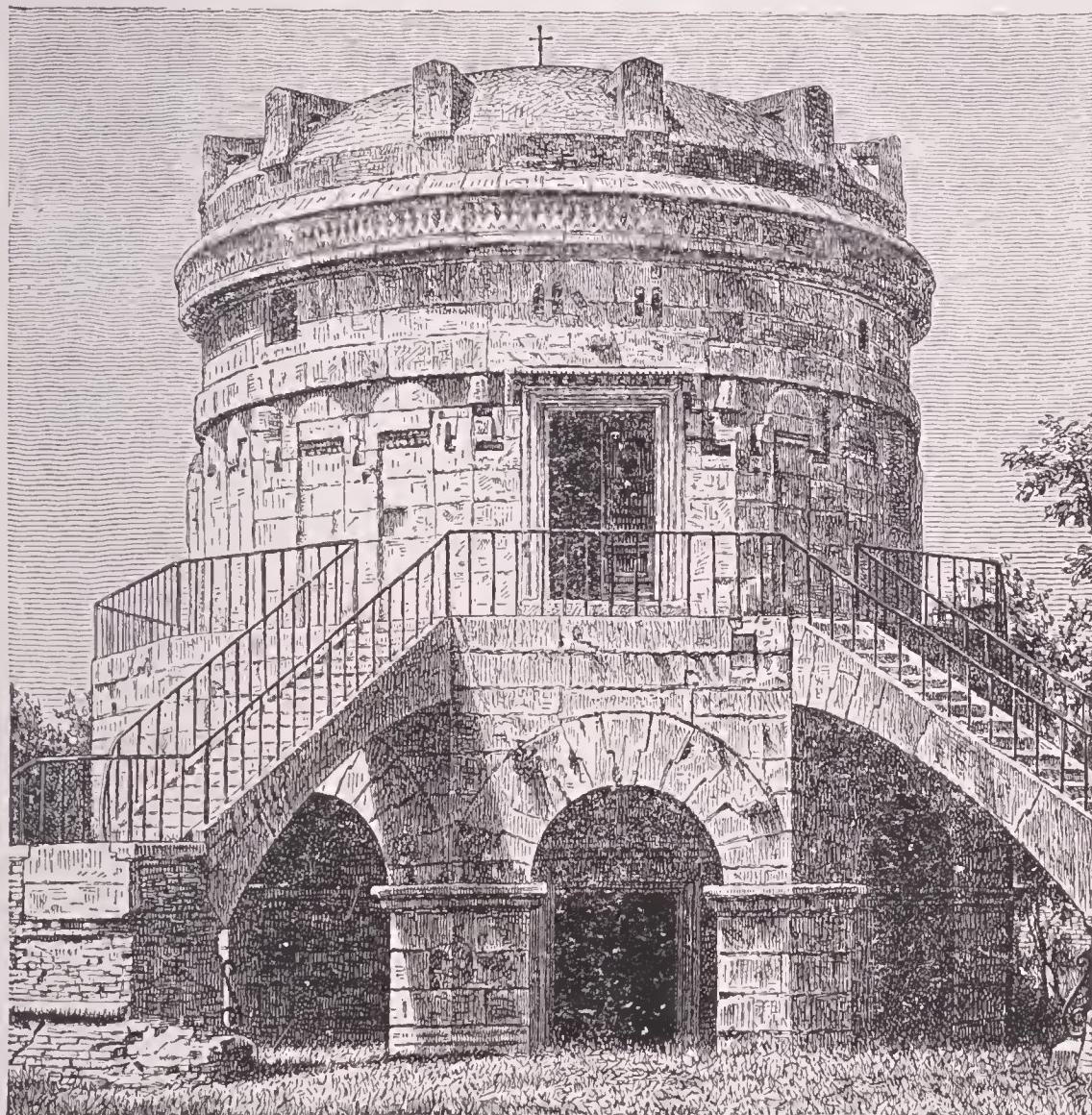
CHAPTER III.

MOULDING OF THE EMPIRE. A. D. 476-768.

THE period at which we have now arrived was one of confusion in Rome, which was fast tumbling to ruin. From the turmoil there arose in 476 a prince of the Heruli named Odoacer, who ruled at the head of his German tribes with wisdom and moderation for fourteen years. He was able to hold out for a time against Theodoric, king of the vast Ostrogoth Empire, but was compelled to surrender in 493, and was treacherously murdered by order of Theodoric, who ruled his two nations of Goths and Romans with justice, but as he grew older became cruel and intolerant.

After the death of Theodoric, he was succeeded in turn by Vitiges (*vee-te'ges*), Totilas and Tejas (*ta'gas*), who were continually harassed by the Roman general Belisarius, and after him, Narses. The Goths fought with

great bravery and for a long time, but Totilas was killed in battle in the year 552, and ten months later his suc-



Tomb of Theodoric the Great, at Ravenna.

sor, Tejas, fell in the three days' conflict near Cuma. Then the Gothic kingdom sank to ruin; the Ostrogoths were almost destroyed, a few making their escape over

the Alps, where they found an asylum among the Germans.

The Gothic power having disappeared from Italy, the Longobards arose in 568, and under their king, Albion, founded the Longobard Empire, which gradually extended its conquests into South Italy and Sicily, and in the course of the following two centuries the different people fused and became one nation.

You will notice that we have been telling of events in the south of Europe. We must now give attention to the north, where the Franks split into two great divisions, the Salic and the Ripuarian Franks. Because the ancestor of the Salic race was Meroveus, the dynasty which sprang from him is called the Merovingian line. Chilperic, son of Meroveus, was an ally of the Romans, and was succeeded by Clovis in 481. This leader figures largely in the early history of Central Europe, and in our story of France we have had considerable to tell about him. I am sure you will recall the story of Clovis and the vase. He was a great warrior, and gave the death-blow to Roman power in Gaul. All the territory between Belgium and the Loire (*lwar*) came into the possession of the Franks, who made Paris the capital of the empire.

Sigebert (*sig-bart*), king of the Ripuarian Franks, finding himself attacked in 496 by the Alemanni, begged Clovis to help him, and he did so. The wife of Clovis was a Christian, and she had often urged her husband to accept that faith. While he thought seriously of the matter, he held off until he found himself in the midst of

a terrible battle with the Alemanni, and the prospect of a crushing defeat before him. He vowed that if God would give him success he would become a Christian. He did gain a great victory—though I cannot help thinking that such an offer was absurd and presumptuous on the part of Clovis, since it is never necessary for God to make a bargain with any of his helpless creatures:

But Clovis (unlike many persons who make vows when in deep trouble) kept his promise. He and 3,000 noble Franks were baptized at Rheims (*reemz*), and in a little while all the Salic Franks professed Christianity. How strange it is that so many people who profess this sweet, gentle faith violate every rule of life it calls for, and yet seem to fancy that because they say they are Christians they are really such ! Clovis was about as far from being a Christian as Satan himself, for he was fierce, cruel and treacherous to the last degree. He never hesitated to kill any one whom he fancied to be in his way. Wishing to make himself king of the Ripuarian Franks, he murdered Sigebert and his son, and when he died, in 511, all the Frankish races were under one dominion, and his immense empire was left to his four sons.

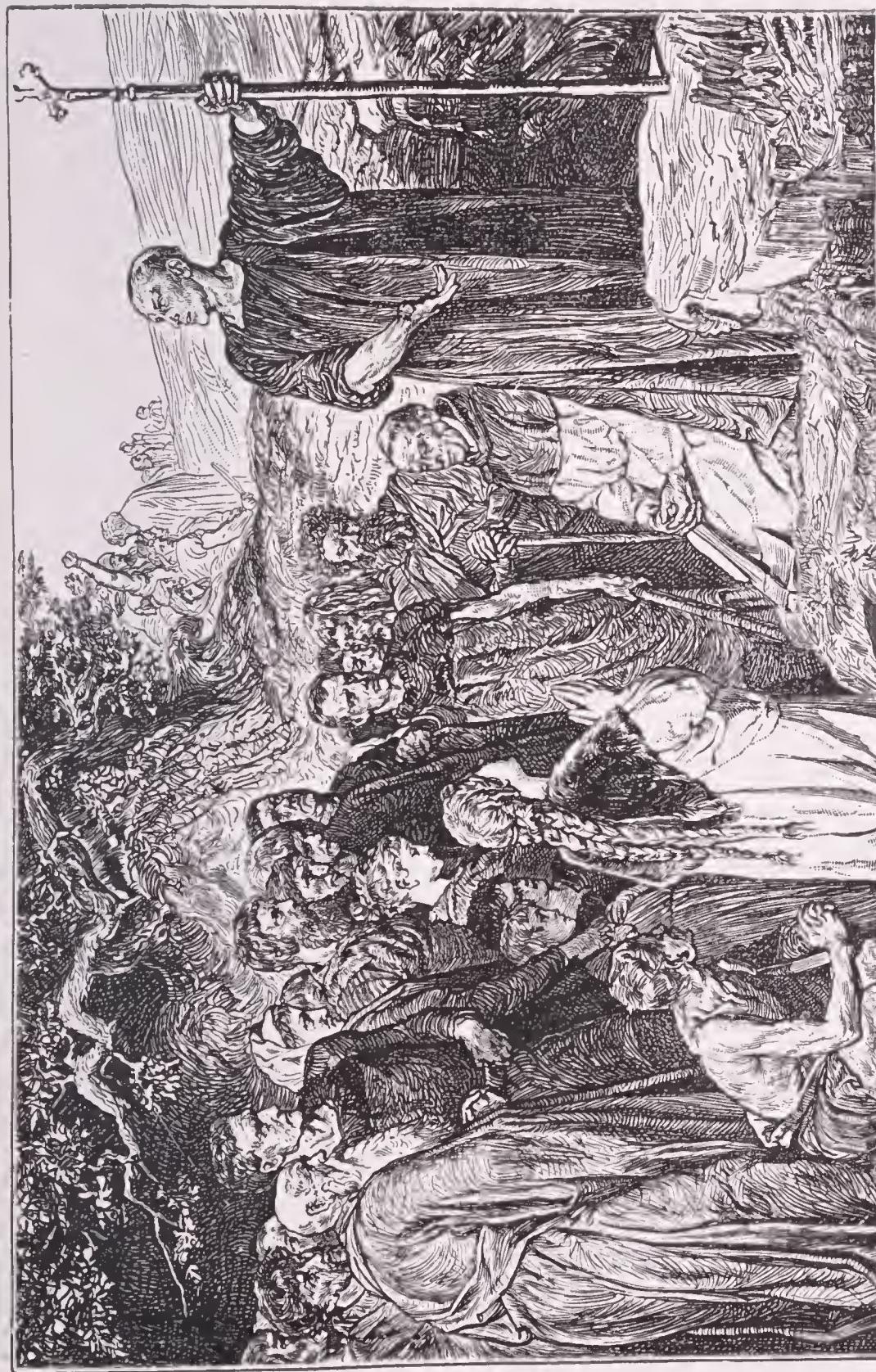
Now, here comes another period of jumbling and turning of things topsy-turvy, the particulars of which are not worth the trouble of reading. The four sons of Clovis divided the vast kingdom among themselves, quarreled, fought, split it into several dominions, united them, tore them apart again, committed crimes without number, with the Merovingian line growing steadily weaker, until at last, like a burned candle, it was snuffed out in 752, to be

succeeded by a virile and powerful dynasty which stamped itself indelibly upon the civilization and life of the people.

This was the Carlovingian line, and it had a curious origin. Among the offices held under the miserable fag-end kings of the Merovingian dynasty was that of "Steward of the Royal Household," whose occupant was the *major domus* of the king. In their conquests the Franks usually claimed one-third of the territory which fell into their hands. A part of this went to the chief men and soldiers, while another portion became the common property of the people, who elected a steward to look after it in their interest. Besides, the lazy kings found it convenient to intrust the royal estates to the same steward. Gradually this officer grew to be as important as the king himself, and in the end still more so, for it was by them that the Merovingian line was wiped out. When, in 622, the young son of the successful king, Dagobert, was made ruler over the German half of the empire, Pepin (*peh-pān*), of Landen, was recognized as the steward, and the weak Dagobert was intrusted wholly into his hands.

Pepin was shrewd, intelligent and energetic, the king being a mere puppet under him, and the steward greatly strengthened the country. His son, Grimoald, followed the policy of his father, and after him Pepin, of Heristal, became practically the ruler of the Franks, and assumed the ducal title. He died in 714, and his son, Karl, reigned as sole major domus and prince over the empire.

Before giving an account of the reign of this great king, let us glance at the progress made by Christianity



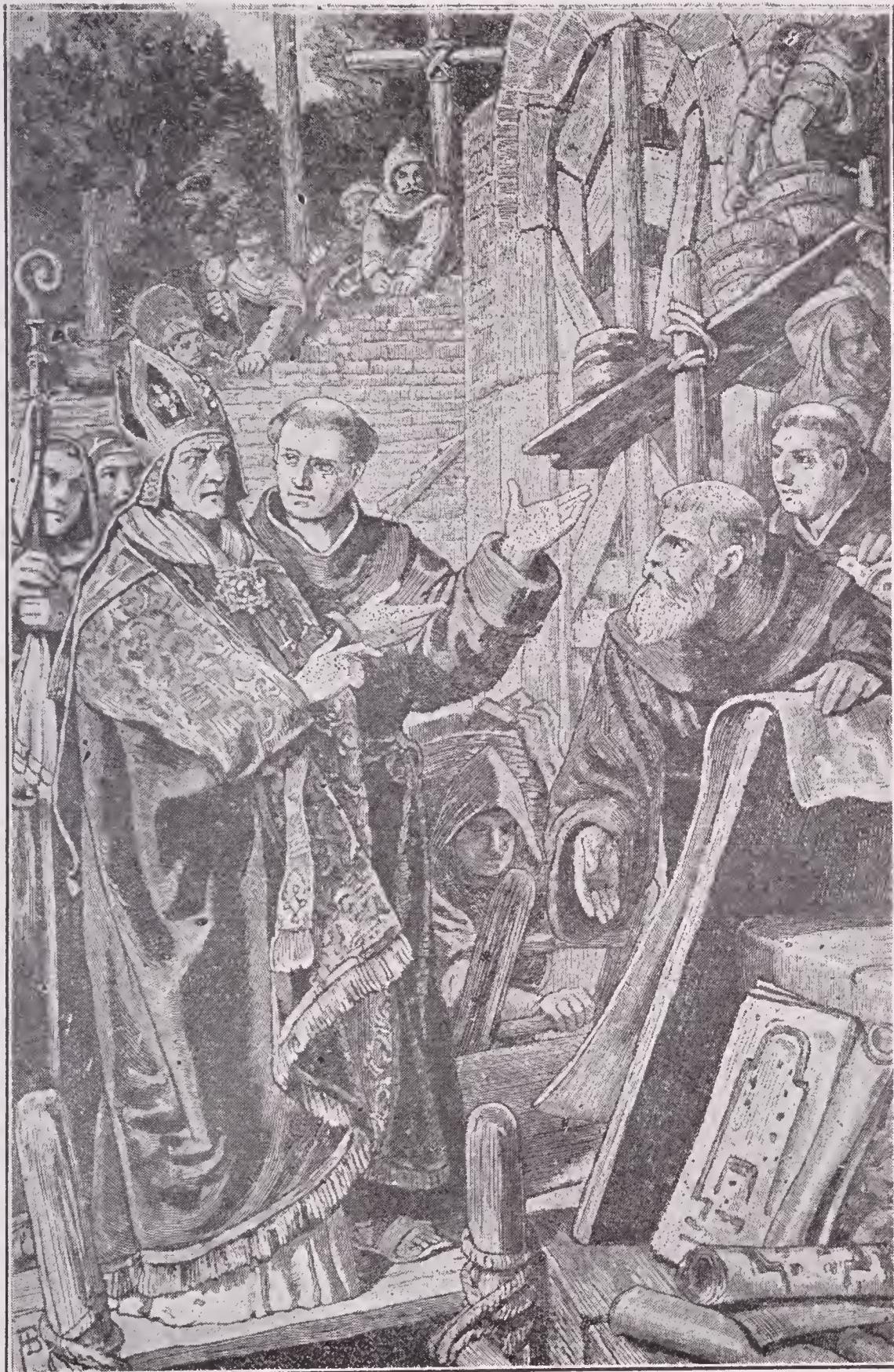
Introduction of Christianity into Germany by St. Boniface.

St. Boniface was not only a teacher of Christianity in Germany. He preached civilization, founded cities and endowed monasteries, which exerted a wide influence, becoming homes for learning in which the Benedictine monks copied, and thus preserved books.

during those stormy times. The early Christians, as you know, suffered cruel persecution and often martyrdom at the hands of the Romans; but nothing could check the advance of the true faith, which steadily made its way throughout the south of Europe. As early as the fourth century the Gospels were translated into Gothic, so that the Goths were among the first to accept Christianity. It was embraced by the Alemanni and other German tribes somewhat later, and, at the beginning of the eighth century, the movement received a powerful impulse from a new apostle of remarkable ability and courage.

This man was a Saxon of England, born in Devonshire in 680, and named Winifried. Having decided to devote his life to missionary labor, he spent three years in Friesland with slight success, and then visited Rome, where he offered his services to the Pope, who appointed him to the vast work of Christianizing Central Germany. Arriving on the scene of his labors, his eloquence, zeal and ability speedily made him a leader in missionary enterprise, and gave him far-reaching influence. It is said that with his own hands he cut down at Geismar, in the land of the Hessians, the aged oak tree made sacred by the Druuids to the god Thor, and planted the cross on the stump of the venerated Irminsol. This and similar daring acts led the people to believe that their own gods were dead or helpless, and they accepted by the thousands the new faith, though they could have known very little of its real nature and principles.

When Winifried made a second visit to Rome the Pope appointed him Archbishop of Mayence, and ordered



him to take henceforward the name of Bonifacius (Bene-factor), by which name and also as Saint Boniface he is known in history. He was confirmed in this office by Karl, or Carl, the German form of Charles, who felt a profound respect for his exalted and unselfish character. The spot where Saint Boniface built the first Christian church in Central Germany, a few miles from Gotha, at the foot of the Thuringian mountains, is marked to-day by an immense candlestick, surmounted by a golden flame.

Karl, with the help of Bishop Bonifacius, devoted himself vigorously to regulating the affairs of his realm, and the prospect was that a long and peaceful rule was before him ; but at this juncture all Europe was threatened by an awful peril. The Saracens, coming across from Africa, defeated the Visigoths in 711, and their resistless army finally overran Spain, of which it took possession. Then the leader of this immense armed host, Viceroy of the Caliph of Damascus, determined to conquer France and to force the religion of Mohammed upon Europe.

The danger was a fearful one, and the Eastern Empire, France, Italy and England, turned to Karl as the only human instrument that could avert this calamity. He prepared for the mighty struggle. When the Saracens came across the Pyrenees their warriors numbered 350,000, and they brought with them their wives and children, with never a doubt that they would occupy the new land. Karl, with amazing energy, summoned the whole military strength of his kingdom, so that his army was about the equal in numbers of the invaders. On a day in October,

732, the two tremendous hosts faced each other near the city of Poitiers (almost *pwi'-te-a*). Six days were spent in preparation, and then one of the grandest battles of the world opened; for who shall attempt to weigh the consequences of defeat to the Christians?

The Saracens rushed forward with their usual daring and dash, but, to quote the words of an old historian, "the Franks, with their strong hearts and powerful bodies, stood like a wall, and hewed down the Arabs with their hands." When darkness at last settled over the field, 200,000 dead and wounded were stretched upon the ground. Karl had held his position, and made his dispositions to renew the battle the next morning; but when day broke no enemy was in sight. The Saracens, checked in their victorious march for the first time, had retreated, leaving their camp and stores behind, and among the myriad dead was the Viceroy of the Caliph of Damascus. The tide of invasion was rolled back, and the cause of Islam in Europe was ruined beyond all hope at the battle of Tours. From that day Karl was called by the surname of Martel (the Hammer), and as Charles Martel he figures on the pages of history.

Karl was kept busy suppressing rebellions in different quarters of his realm, which you must remember included France as well as Germany. Worn out at last by his marches and battles, he died in 741, fifty years old, after a reign of twenty-seven years. Shortly before his death he called a council of the princes and nobles, and secured their pledge that his eldest son Carloman should succeed him as Royal Steward of Germany, and his second son, Pepin, should be Royal Steward of France and Burgundy.

Pepin, the second son, was surnamed the "Short," because of his stature, which was only four and a half feet. Now, you will smile when I tell you that Pepin had a son who was almost seven feet in height; but that same son became one of the greatest men in human history, and I shall soon have a good deal to relate about him. Father and son must have made a strange picture when they took a stroll together.

In the year 747 Carloman resigned his power and went to Rome, where he became a monk. This left Pepin sole ruler, and he proved himself to be an able one. He conquered and held in check all the surrounding nations, and extended the kingdom of the Franks to the Mediterranean and the Pyrenees. Feeling the absurdity of wearing only the title of major domus, he threw it aside and took that of king. In order to win the support of the church, he applied to the Pope to sanction the act, and the Pope did so. Pepin was recognized as King of the Franks at the Diet of Soissons, (almost *swi-son'*), and two years later the Pope crossed the Alps to ask Pepin to aid him against the Longobard king. Pepin was prompt to comply, and on the occasion the Pope consecrated Pepin and his two sons, Carloman and Charles, as Kings of the Franks. At the same time he issued a ban of excommunication against all persons who should support a monarch belonging to any other than the reigning dynasty. Pepin greatly strengthened the influence of the church by gifts of land, by increasing the privileges of the priesthood, and by allowing in many cases civil power to the ecclesiastical synods. He died in 768.

CHAPTER IV.

CHARLEMAGNE AND HIS CARLOVINGIAN SUCCESSORS.
771-918.

NOW, I propose to tell you something about that seven-foot son of Pepin the Short. He was twenty-five years old when he came to the throne, and, his brother Carloman dying four years later, the whole empire was transferred to Charles, who afterward was known as Charlemagne (*shar-le-mahn'*), or Charles the Great. Thus he became the ruler over all of France and the greater part of Germany.

Charles was a tremendous man physically, but he was still greater mentally, and, as I have already said, is one of the leading characters of history. The work which he faced was that of extending, securing and developing a great empire. He was too wise to imitate any of the statesmen who had gone before him, for his genius told him that he was confronted by new conditions, and that his empire must be moulded into a new civilization. Like such born leaders, Charlemagne believed thoroughly in himself. His views might be opposed by all the rest of the world, in which event he grimly smiled to see all the rest of the world wrong, and, as a rule, it must be confessed that his estimate of such a difference of opinion was generally the correct one.

He was despotic, which was to be expected, and his

magnificent career is stained by more than one deed of cruelty. If a member of his own family interfered with his plans, Charles did not hesitate to sacrifice him. In those turbulent days it was impossible for him to keep out of war, and half his reign was thus spent, and yet he never failed to protect the rights of the people, and was an ardent friend of learning, literature and the arts. If he crushed the independence of nations around him, he gave them a better civilization in its place.

The first people to cause Charlemagne trouble were the rebellious Saxons, and before he could bring them to order the Pope of Rome called upon him for help against the Longobards. Rather curiously, the king of these Longobards was the father of Charles' second wife, whom he had turned off and sent back to her home, for Charles was anything but a model in his marriage relations. Still further, the widow of the dead Carloman, brother of Charles, and her sons were living at the Longobard court. But that did not make the least difference to Charles, who led a powerful army across the Alps by the pass of St. Bernard, conquered all of Northern Italy and besieged the Longobard king in Pavia. Then marching to Rome, he was received by the Pope as a liberator.

Pavia soon fell into Charles' hands. His discarded wife was sent into a monastery, and the kingdom of the Longobards, embracing all Northern and Central Italy, was annexed to the Frankish Empire. The people were treated generously, but there was continual trouble with them.

While Charles was absent in Italy, the Saxons rose in



rebellion under their leader, Witikind, who drove out the Frankish garrisons and laid waste the land as far as the Rhine. The king soon returned, forced them to submit, and had hardly turned his back when the Saxons were again in revolt. The following year Charles suppressed them with so much rigor and placed such strong garrisons in the country that most of them gave up hope of gaining their independence, as a proof of which they were baptized. Witikind, however, refused to submit, and fled to the country of the Danes.

The Governor of Saragossa, in Spain, asked Charles to help him against the Moors, and the king led an army into that country. The cities of Saragossa and Pampeluna were conquered and swore allegiance, but many of the people began to think the rule of the Saracen was to be preferred to that of the Frank. In crossing the Pyrenees, the rear guard of Charles was treacherously attacked in the Pass of Roncesvalles (*ron'sa-val*), where they had no chance of defending themselves or of escape. They were crushed by great rocks rolled down upon them from above, among the killed being Roland, the nephew of Charles, the flower of chivalry, whose story has been celebrated in song and verse, which tell of his marvelous sword, Duranda, and of his silver bugle.

Witikind made things lively for Charles while he was absent in Spain. He hurried back to his Saxons, and roused them to a new revolt. They eagerly responded, laying waste the land as far as Coblenz, and, entering Hesse and Thuringia, drove the monks out of the monastery of Fulda. You can well understand that Charles



lost patience, and when he appeared again among his rebellious subjects he put them down with an iron hand. To prevent future uprisings, he fortified the country anew, set stern Frankish nobles to rule the land, planted the Christian priests and missionaries in many places, and then, believing the trouble was ended for good, he sent an army, largely composed of Saxons, against the Slavs and Sorbs, who were threatening the eastern part of his empire.

This act was a costly blunder on the part of Charles, because Witikind again raised the flag of revolt, repulsed the army near the Weser, and drew to his standard all the Saxons whom Charles expected to fight the marplot. The exasperated king hastened into the country once more, with an army too powerful to be withstood, and Witikind was obliged again to take refuge among the Danes. The king demanded all the Saxons who had deserted, and when they were returned to him he was so infuriated that he caused the whole number—4,500—to be beheaded. This is one of the darkest stains on the memory of the great Charlemagne.

The next step of the king was a characteristic one. He issued an act introducing Christianity by force, and punishing with death all who refused to accept it. The Saxons, instead of being frightened into submission, united in a desperate resistance. Witikind came back from Denmark, and led in a new and more determined rebellion in 783. But the armies of Charles were resistless, and stamped out all opposition. Finally, in 785, Witikind himself professed conversion and made his submission.

His example was generally followed by the rest of the Saxons, who indulged in no more revolts, and in time came to be one of the strongest supports of the empire. Then the Danes were driven back, Bavaria was added to the empire, and the enemies in Hungary were conquered.

The glory of Charles was now at its height. His realm extended from the Elbe to Apulia and from the Ebro to Hungary. Other nations sought his friendship, and even the rich rulers of Persia and India sent him valuable presents, among which were a white elephant and the first clock ever brought to Europe.

In the year 799 the Pope came to Germany to beg Charles' help against his enemies. The potentate was escorted back by an imposing company of nobles, and soon afterward Charles himself followed. On New Year's Day, 800, Leo III. crowned him with a golden crown in the Church of St. Peter. Individuals from almost every nation of the West were gathered in the metropolis of the Christian church, and the temple held a vast multitude. After high mass, when Charles knelt at the altar, the Pope brought forth an Imperial crown and set it upon his head, and the people exclaimed: "Charles Augustus, crowned by the Almighty, the great and peace-bringing Emperor of the Romans. Hail, all hail and victory!" Thus Charlemagne was emperor as well as king.

The monarch having secured, as he believed, his vast empire, now gave his energies to the introduction of learning, arts and culture into Germany. He displayed the same vigor that marked his military campaigns. Schools were founded and endowed, bishoprics and sees established,

excellent singers and organists brought from Rome, and he surrounded himself with learned scholars, of whom he spoke as his "Academy." Splendid palaces and churches were built under his direction, the most famous being the cathedral at Aix la Chapelle (*äkes-lah-shä-pel'*). He dearly loved his country, and neglected nothing that promised to improve it in any way or add to its prosperity.

As years crept upon him, Charlemagne, inspired by noble aspirations for Germany, made his plans for the sons who were to succeed him; but the two most promising passed away before the close of his life, and Louis, who remained, was the weakest of them all. Charlemagne died in the latter part of January, 814, his last words being: "Lord, into Thy hands do I commit my soul." The body, amid the mourning of the whole nation, was taken to the vault of the church which he built, there clothed in all the imperial robes, with a golden gospel opened on his knees, a piece of the original holy cross upon his head and a pilgrim's scrip around his loins. He was set in an upright position in a marble chair, the vault filled with frankincense, spices, balsam and many costly articles, and then closed and sealed up.

The son who now became ruler of the whole Frankish empire has already been spoken of as Louis, who was surnamed the Pious. His tastes were more Roman than German, and he was much better fitted for the church than for the duties of a ruler over a great and turbulent people. After reigning for three years he reached this conclusion himself, for he divided the vast empire among his three sons, Lothaire, Pepin and Louis. Some time

after, a fourth son, called Charles the Bald, was born of a second wife, and Louis thought he ought to make some changes in the former division of his empire for the benefit of the last arrival. The other three were angered, and in 830 began a war against their father, which lasted until his death. The war was a shameless one in many respects, being viciously bitter and attended with no decisive results. Louis, the father, was compelled to suffer many indignities at the hands of his son Lothaire, and hostilities were still active when Louis the Pious died in 840.

Now, observe how this fine family quarrel went on. Lothaire, being the eldest son, insisted that he had a right to rule the whole Frankish empire, but his brothers couldn't agree to that, so they united against Lothaire and overthrew him. Lothaire then promised the Danes and Saxons that if they would help him he would grant independence to the Saxons. They seized this bait, and kept up the fighting for three years; but matters did not go right for them, and in 843 Lothaire was obliged to sign the Treaty of Verdun, which divided the empire into three independent kingdoms—Louis receiving Germany; Charles, France, and Lothaire, Italy.

Note here an important fact: the Treaty of Verdun marks the beginning of French and German nationality. From that time forward France and Germany must be spoken of as separate kingdoms.

The Emperor Lothaire, as if pursued by the spirit of the father against whom he had offended, retired to a convent, where he died in 862. The crown descended to his eldest son, Louis II., but he was powerless to prevent his

uncles, Charles the Bald and Louis the German, from robbing him of his heritage. He lived but a short time, dying in 875, when Louis and Charles again wrangled, and finally appealed to the Pope to decide which of them should assume the Italian crown and the Imperial dignity. One result of this appeal was that the Pope in time claimed the exclusive right to decide how these crowns should be disposed of. Then Louis the German died, and Charles the Bald attempted to seize all the territory on the left bank of the Rhine; but when Louis the German and his two elder sons passed away the empire fell to the youngest, known as Charles the Fat, whom the Pope crowned as emperor.

Thus the grand empire of Charlemagne was once more united, though for the last time, under the rule of a Carolingian emperor, but he who was at the head was too weak to hold the reins. Finding himself threatened by the Slavs and Czechs on the east and the Normans on the west, instead of rallying his countrymen and crushing them, as Charlemagne would have done, he was cowardly enough to buy peace by the payment of enormous bribes. Then internal troubles broke out, and, since he was unable to control them, the German nobles deposed Charles the Fat in 887, and he died the following year. Arnold, his nephew, was chosen as his successor, and thereby the old hereditary system was displaced by the elective.

Arnold proved a good ruler. He reduced the Normans to order, but in order to subdue the fierce tribes in Bohemia he was obliged to call upon the Magyars who had settled in Hungary. Dying in 899, Arnold was suc-

ceeded by his seven-year-old son, Louis the Child, who was chosen King of Germany. He died at the age of eighteen, without being able to bring order out of the confusion that reigned everywhere. The duchies, too, began to assert themselves, and Conrad of Franconia was selected as emperor, the Carlovingian line having become extinct in 911 with the death of Louis the Child.

Conrad proved unequal to the great task confronting him, his most powerful enemy being Duke Henry of Saxony, and him Conrad named on his deathbed in 918 as the one and only man whose abilities fitted him to govern the vast empire; and the wisest thing done by Conrad was when he sent his brother to offer the crown to Henry.

CHAPTER V.

HOUSE OF SAXONY, 919–1024; OF FRANCONIA, *Restored*,
1024–1125; AND OF SAXONY *again*, 1125–1138.

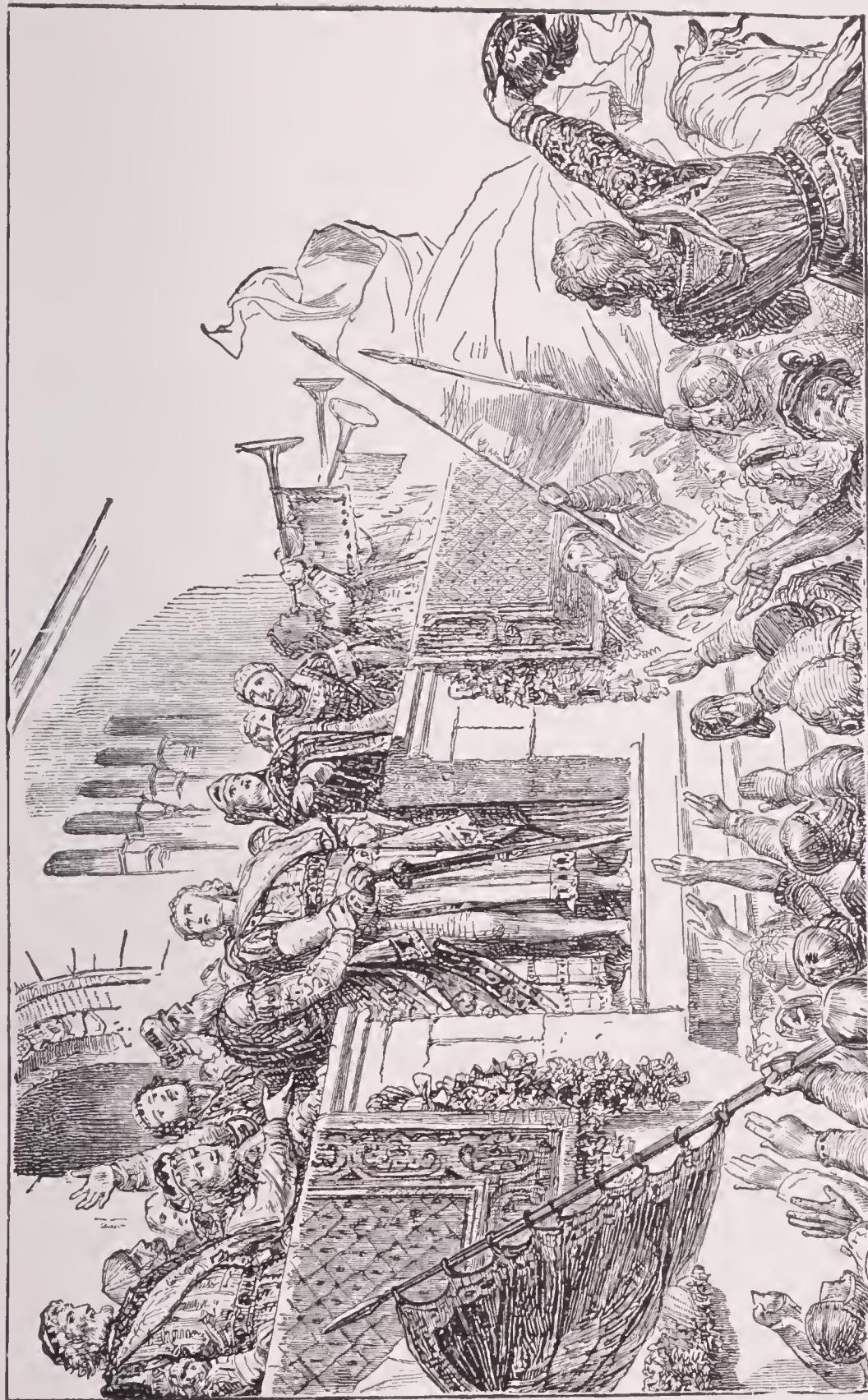
IN order to keep the history of Germany clear in our minds, let us recall that after the degenerate grandsons of Charlemagne fought over the division of the mighty empire left by that great man it was divided into three portions—France, Germany and Italy—of which Germany, in 843, fell to the lot of Louis II. In 911 the Carlovingian line became extinct, whereupon the great

princes of Germany and the leading dignitaries of the church, who formed the Diet or Great Council, took upon themselves the right of electing the emperor, subject to the approval of the Pope, who alone could crown him.

At that time Germany was occupied by several races, chief of which were the Franks, the Saxons, the Bavarians and the Suabians. You have learned that the Diet chose Conrad of Franconia, who died in 918, having on his deathbed sent an offer of the crown to his most powerful enemy, Henry I., Duke of Saxony. When the messengers set out to carry the formal offer of the crown to the Duke, they found him on the Hartz Mountains, flying his hawks, which was one of the principal amusements of the nobility. It is because of this incident that the first emperor of the Saxon dynasty is referred to in history as Henry the Fowler.

This ruler was a great man, who used all his energy and ability in building up his realm and bringing about a lasting peace, under which alone true prosperity and progress could be secured. The dukes were all powerful, some of them being richer than the king, with even greater resources at their command. Naturally, they were jealous of their own rights, and resented any interference on the part of their nominal ruler. But by tact, firmness and wisdom, Henry secured their support.

One grave peril was on the frontiers, for the emperors were often called to Italy to fight for their possessions there, and thus left Germany so weak at home that she tempted her warlike neighbors. The most dangerous of these were the Magyars. They were so numerous and powerful that Henry showed his wisdom by making a truce



Election of Conrad of Franconia as Emperor of Germany.

Conrad administered the laws faithfully, and his short reign of seven years was devoted to the great object of uniting the Germans in one nation. He and his brother Eberhard deliberately sacrificed prospects of family aggrandizement for the good of their fatherland.

instead of going to war with them. Then he set to work to reorganize the army. A fine soldier himself, he taught the Saxons how to use cavalry, and gave them practical lessons in war by making several minor campaigns against the Slavs. After this he built so many fortresses, castles and towns, especially in Saxony and Thuringia, that he is often referred to as the "Builder of Towns."

Henry made Bohemia tributary to the German empire, and subdued the Suabians. Then the nine years' truce with the Magyars, or Hungarians, having expired in 934, they sent an order to Henry to pay them tribute. How do you suppose the emperor answered the impudent demand? He took a wretched, mangy dog, cropped its ears and tail, and sent it to the Hungarians as his "black-mail," which was the term.

The insult enraged the Magyars. They swore they would have vengeance; they would invade Germany and show no quarter to their foes, who should all be put to the sword. And the wild men, panting for revenge, swarmed into Saxony and met Henry at Merseburg. In a furious battle the Hungarians were utterly defeated and thousands massacred. The people were so thankful for their deliverance that they hailed Henry as the "Father of his Country."

The Danish sea-robbers were a continual torment. They laid waste the northern coasts and caused so much suffering that Henry invaded Denmark, conquered the sea-kings, compelled them to pay tribute to Germany, and Schleswig was added to the German empire.

This great king made war only when it was necessary,

his chief pleasure being in building up his empire from within. He was devoted to the church, and founded many new bishoprics and sees in the North to help the spread of Christianity, while his reform measures, both civil and religious, were highly important. So you will admit I was right when I said that the wisest thing done



The Last Tribute to the Magyars.

by Conrad of Franconia was his offer of the German crown to Henry, Duke of Saxony. He died in 936, at the age of sixty, having secured the promise of the Diet to make his oldest son Otto (also spelled Otho) his successor.

If you will look at the list of emperors and kings of Germany at the conclusion of this history you will see that Otto was crowned as king in 936, and as emperor in

962. He was a young man, and took upon himself the name of the Lion, or the Great, when he married the widow of the King of Normandy, and made that kingdom a fief (which is the French name for an estate in lands held of a feudal superior) of Germany. He was very ambitious and eager to win for himself a name like that of his great ancestor Charlemagne. The duchies and bishoprics were held firmly in hand, and he placed them in charge of whom he pleased. The Hungarians renewed their invasions, but, in doing so, made as great a mistake as when they fought his father, for Otto defeated



Statues of Otto the Great and his wife Editha in the Minster at Magdeburg.

them in a great battle in Bavaria. Then, when the Duke of Lombardy revolted, he led a powerful army across the Alps and subdued him. At Milan he received the iron crown of the Lombards, and was crowned by the Pope Emperor of the West, just as Charlemagne had been. This, as you

will remember, was in 962, his title being Kaiser (*cæsar*). During his reign the Hartz silver mines were discovered. He was an ardent patron of letters, and had a school in his palace, though, strange to say, the emperor himself was never able to read or write. He died in 973.

His son, Otto II., succeeded to the crown as "King of Germany and Kaiser of the Holy Roman Empire." He is sometimes referred to as the Red King, or the Bloody. His whole reign was a series of wars. His great ambition was to unite Germany and Italy into one kingdom, but he failed, as has every emperor who made the attempt. He defeated the Saracens in Lower Italy and conquered Naples and Tarentum; but the Greek emperor invited the Saracens again into Italy, and in a battle with them Otto was overwhelmed, and came very near losing his life. He returned to Rome to prepare another expedition, and while there received news of fresh rebellions at home. Then he died so suddenly in 983 that many historians believe it was due to poison, for that was one of the means often employed among all classes, high and low, to remove a hated person.

Since the emperor was but twenty-eight years of age when he died, his son, known as Otto III., was too young to administer the government, for he was only three years old. This youth gained the name of the Wonder of the World, because of his remarkable attainments. His instructor was Gerbert, afterward Pope Sylvester II., who himself



Coin of Otto the Great.

was one of the most accomplished scholars of his age. His attainments caused him to be looked upon as a magician. Among the many inventions he made was the balance-clock, which was used until supplanted by the pendulum in 1650. After acting as the teacher of Otto III. Gerbert was placed at the head of the school at Rheims, which he made one of the first in Europe. Robert, afterward King of France, was among his pupils. Gerbert was called to the Papal chair on the death of Gregory V., and administered affairs with much prudence and moderation. He was the first French Pope.

Otto III. was a dreamer when he began his reign at the age of sixteen, the government of the empire having been conducted during his minority by his grandmother, Adelaide, and by the Archbishop of Cologne. His aim was to introduce the customs of the Byzantine court and to make Rome the capital of the empire. He crossed into Italy three times, and was crowned as emperor by Pope Gregory II., the first German Pontiff. Having formally acknowledged the Duke of Poland as a separate ruler, he raised the Polish territories to the rank of a kingdom. While on his third visit to Rome he died unmarried in 1002, not quite twenty-two years of age.

The German nobles now chose Duke Henry of Bavaria as German king. He was a great grandson of Henry I., and was crowned at Mentz and Aix-la-Chapelle, at the age of thirty, and two years later was crowned King of Lombardy at Pavia.

Henry II. had a stormy reign, as did most of those who had gone before and who came after him. The

Polish ruler refused to pay tribute to him, and, having annexed Bohemia to his dominions, he invaded Germany. A war followed, which lasted several years, when Henry made a treaty with him, acknowledging the independence of Poland and holding Bohemia as a fief of Germany. Then Henry turned his attention to Italy, where a revolt had occurred. He captured and burned Pavia and defeated the Greeks in Southern Italy. Henry was a very pious king, and held in such high favor by the church that he was canonized or made saint. He died in Germany in 1024, and was the last of the Saxon emperors.

The Franconian dynasty was restored when Conrad II., son of Henry, Duke of Franconia, was elected King of Germany. By his marriage he annexed the kingdom of Burgundy to the empire in 1033. He gave Schleswig back to Denmark, and made a treaty of peace with Canute, the King, and with England; was crowned with the iron crown of Lombardy, and received the submission of all the cities in Northern Italy. He died in Germany in



Henry II. Receiving the Crown, the Holy Lance, and the Imperial Sword.

Miniature from Henry's missal and presented by him to the Cathedral of Bamburg.

1039, a year after his return from his last Italian expedition.



A Trial by God's Judgment.

The Empress Kunigunde, wife of Henry II., is shown walking over hot plowshares, led by a bishop on each side.

becoming a fief of the German crown. He brought general peace and security to the country, and justly ranks among the best of the early rulers of Germany. Unfortunately, he died in 1056, while only thirty-nine years old. It may interest you to know that Henry III. had such intensely black hair that he is often called the Black King.

I must not forget to tell you about the conflicts which Henry III. had with the church. The Normans made

Henry III., son of the former, was twenty-two years old when he came to the throne. He was able and energetic, as he had need to be, for war flamed continually on his frontiers, Poland and Bohemia seethed with revolt and the Duke Godfrey in Lorraine had to be restrained. Henry replaced the King of Hungary on the throne, that country thus



The Empress Kunigunde, adored as a saint, her innocence of infidelity to her husband proven, having stood the ordeal without being burned.

such dangerous advances in the south of Italy, that the Pope led an army against them. He was defeated and taken prisoner, but made terms with the brave invaders by giving them the province of Apulia to hold in fief. This opened such a strife in the church that at one period there were three Popes reigning at the same time. At this point Henry stepped forward, called a council of the church, the Synod of Sutri, deposed two of the Popes and compelled the third to abdicate. Then he chose a Pope and received the imperial crown from him. Afterward he created three more Pontiffs, and ordered that no more Popes should be consecrated without the sanction of the emperor.

Henry IV. was only five years old when his father died. His excellent mother, Queen Agnes, acted as regent until the son reached the age of fifteen. The extravagance of the court, the overbearing conduct of the young king, the heavy taxes and his personal vices caused an insurrection among the Saxons, which he was not able to subdue until 1075. In that year he invaded Saxony, won a great battle and desolated their country with fire and sword.

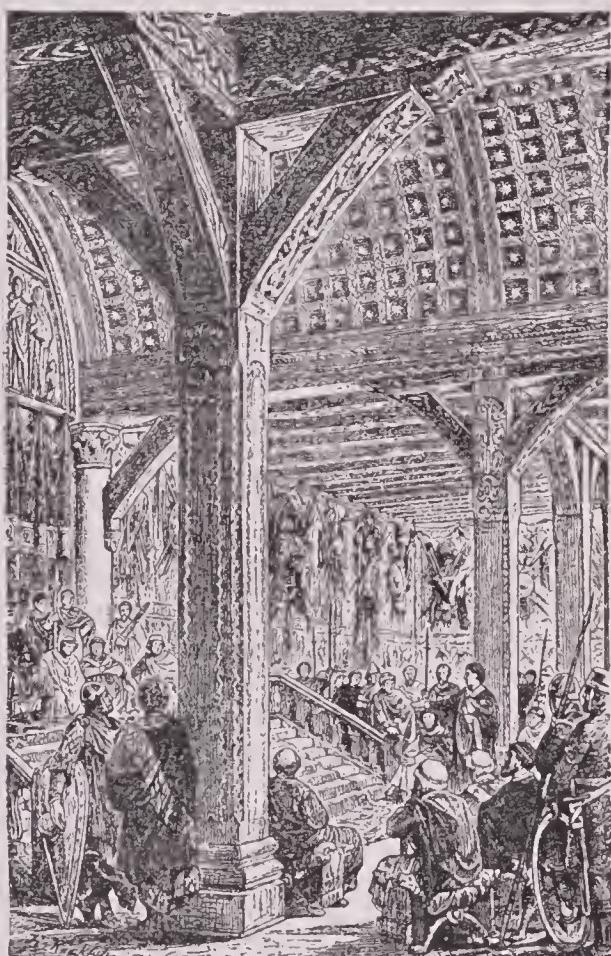
His authority being established, he was now compelled to face a far different and much graver conflict, which was



Seal of the Emperor Conrad II. 1031.

with Pope Gregory VII., formerly a German monk named Hildebrand. This able pontiff set to work to free the church from its abuses, and to make its authority supreme

over the civil. He forbade the buying and selling of ecclesiastical offices by the emperor, ordered that the clergy should not marry, and that the right of giving away high places in the church should be taken wholly out of the hands of laymen. He gained many wealthy and powerful supporters, but the Pope's orders were hotly opposed in Germany. The climax was reached when Henry refused to part with the bishops and counsellors whom the Pope had excommunicated.



The Great Hall of the Imperial House
at Goslar, Arranged for a Diet.
Time of Henry IV.

not only excommunicated, but whose empire was placed under an *interdict*, as it is called.

By this the offices of the church were stopped throughout the country. No mass was said, no churches opened, the bells were silent, there could be no marrying nor services

The Pontiff now launched his most terrifying weapon against the king, whom he



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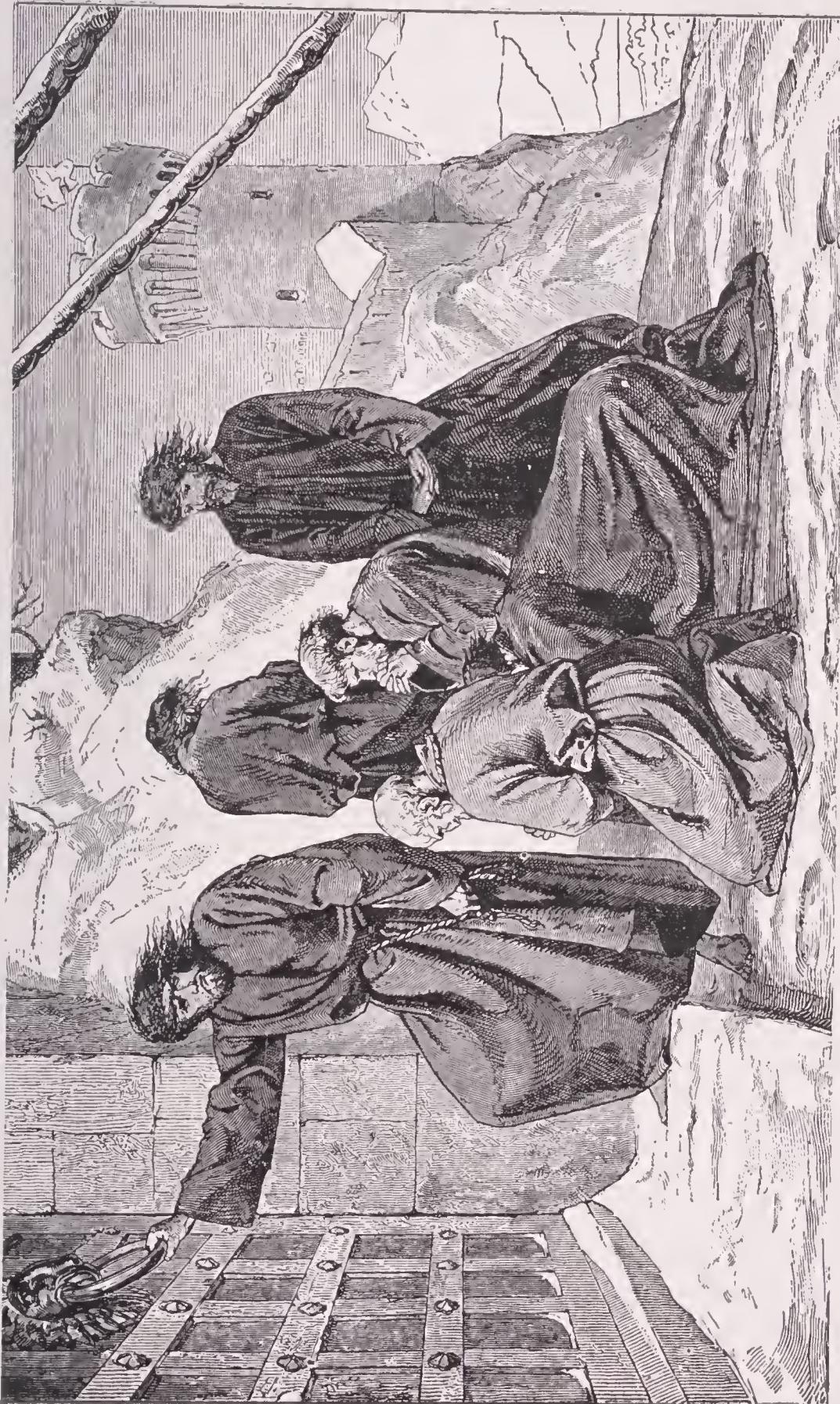
The Synod of Sutri.

Pope Sylvester III. Deposed by the Emperor, Henry III.

for the dead ; Catholics were released from their allegiance to the emperor, and it was declared that any one who slew him would be rendering a service to God. The fearful significance of all this brought Henry to his senses, for he could not feel sure of his Saxon vassals, and a session of princes and nobles, held at Tribur, in 1076, declared themselves free to disown him if the Pope did not remove the ban by February of the following year.

The next picture of the king shows him making his way in midwinter across the Alps to beg for mercy from the indignant Pope. On the 25th of January, 1077, he appeared before the gates of Canossa, in Italy, where the Pope was staying, and begged to be admitted to the presence of the Pontiff. The latter was not ready, and, incredible as it may seem, kept him waiting for three days, barefoot and in the bitter cold, before he allowed him to come in and prostrate himself before him. After the king had wept, whined for forgiveness and groveled in the very dust, he was given absolution, and the ban was removed.

When Henry left the presence of the Pope he was stung to madness by the humiliation put upon him. He hurriedly raised an army and conquered Rudolf of Suabia, whom the Pope had caused to be elected in his place. Then, as if growing more furious with his successes, he marched into Italy, in 1084, captured Rome, declared Gregory deposed, drove him into exile at Salerno, in Southern Italy, and ordered the election of a new Pope. Henry died in 1106. It is said that a curse seemed to rest upon the latter part of his life. His wife was un-



The Emperor Henry IV. Barefooted in the Snow Before the Castle Gate at Canossa.

Henry made the journey to Canossa in the depth of a severe winter, accompanied only by his noble wife, Bertha, whom he had abused in the days of his prosperity, a few attendants, and the bishops who had been excommunicated with him.

faithful, his sons rebelled against him, and finally he was compelled to abdicate in favor of his son Henry. Then he became a homeless beggar, to whom people refused food and shelter. He was found dead on the doorsteps of a religious house in Liege, from which he had been turned away. The body lay for five years in a cellar, when, the ban having been removed, it was buried at Spires.

Henry V. has been called the Parricide, because he deposed his father. Although he had been encouraged to this by the Pope, he was determined not to give up any of his imperial rights to the church. A quarrel, therefore, broke out at once, but after awhile a sort of peace was patched up, only to start up anew, until the people grew weary and the emperor and Pope reached a compromise, by which Papal influence was much extended in Germany. Henry died in 1125 without heirs, and was therefore the last of the Frankish line.

Lothaire, Duke of Saxony, was elected as German king and ruled until 1138. He greatly strengthened the empire, all nations acknowledging his power. The Pope having summoned him to help repel the Norman invaders of his kingdom, Lothaire did so, but on his way back to Germany died in 1137.

CHAPTER VI.

HOUSE OF SUABIA, OR HOHENSTAUFFEN. 1138-1254.

INSTEAD of electing Henry the Proud, the powerful son-in-law of Lothaire, as king of Germany, the nobles chose Conrad III., the first of the House of Hohenstauffen (*-stow'fen*), or Suabia. This house was founded by Frederick von Büren, who lived about 1040.

Guelph, brother of Henry the Proud, made war against the new king, but was defeated and compelled to take refuge in Weinsburg, to which Conrad laid siege in 1140. The town was a small one, but it offered the most determined resistance to the king, only to fall in the end. Conrad was so enraged by the valiant and prolonged defence of the place that he determined to burn it to the ground and to put to death all the men within the walls, but he gave the women permission to depart free, taking with them their most valued treasures.

The next day when the gates were opened out came each wife with her husband on her back, each sister with a brother, or young lady with her lover (provided there were enough men to furnish the funny loads) perched on her shoulders. The astounded king was so touched by the novel sight that he not only pardoned the rebels but spared the city.

Conrad was begged to go to the aid of the Papal power in Rome, which was threatened by Arnold of Breschia

(*bresh'e-a*), but he refused, promising, however, to lead a crusade into the Holy Land. Those crusades, as I have explained in the histories of England and of France, professed to be for the object of wresting Palestine from the Saracens or infidels, and especially to secure protection to Christian pilgrims while visiting the tomb of the Saviour at Jerusalem. Such I say was the professed purpose of the crusades, and doubtless it was that motive which actuated many who took part in them. Love of adventure, the longing for excitement and the sight of strange lands, and the greed for plunder moved others, while back of all this the real leaders and movers in those grotesque travesties upon religion were stirred by the hope of conquest, treasure and the extension of domain.

You will find in our history of France a full account of the different crusades to the Holy Land, in some of which England, France and Germany took part. The second crusade was composed of two immense armies, numbering fully a million of men, under Louis VII., of France, and Conrad III., Emperor of Germany, who were then the two most powerful monarchs of Europe. They set out in 1147, but, owing to the treachery of the Greek emperor, met with repeated disasters, and, failing to capture Damascus, the expedition was abandoned, only a few of the vast host succeeding in reaching their homes. Most of them were slain or made slaves by the Turks. A crusade was made as late as 1301 by 7,000 children, who started from Cologne, and crossed the Alps into Italy, where their members were scattered. Some remained there, some managed to reach the Holy Land, and very few ever got back



"The Children's Crusade."

The Turks wrested Jerusalem from the Arabs A. D. 1073. Twenty-one years later Peter the Hermit visited the Holy Sepulchre, and, returning to Europe, aroused Christendom to rescue it from the infidel. In all, eight crusades were undertaken, ultimately resulting in much good to East and West, alike.

to Germany. Conrad died in 1152, and it should be remembered that he was never crowned Kaiser, being only King of Germany.

One of the leaders who went with Conrad to Palestine was the son of Frederick, Duke of Suabia. Although a young man, he proved that he possessed fine qualities, and he was now chosen as the successor of Conrad. He was immensely popular, being liked by everybody. Because of his fiery red beard he was called Barbarossa, which means Red Beard. He proved himself a great monarch, for in the first year of his reign he compelled the Kings of Denmark, Poland and Hungary to pay him homage for their crowns; he made a kingdom of the Duchy of Bohemia, and through his marriage obtained possession of Burgundy. He became involved in a serious quarrel with the Pope, Alexander III., which resulted in Frederick's excommunication, but the two met at Venice in August, 1177, when the excommunication was removed and the two were fully reconciled.

The emperor's hardest fight was with the cities of Lombardy, which thought themselves powerful enough to demand their independence. They were defeated at first, but gained a decisive victory over Frederick at Legnano (*len-yah'no*), in Northern Italy, in 1176, and secured the right of independent government. In 1188 Frederick assumed the cross and set out the following year on the Third Crusade, but while crossing a river in Asia, in June, 1190, he was drowned.

There is a strange legend connected with the death of Frederick Barbarossa. He was greatly beloved at home,



Meeting of the Emperor Barbarossa and Pope Alexander III. at Venice.

The emperor fell at the feet of the Pope, who took him in his arms and gave him the kiss of peace. Then the Pope, himself, negotiated with the Lombard cities, and the Peace of Constance made them little republics with but the shadow of an empire over them.

and for a long time the people refused to believe he was dead, but were sure he would come back to them. Sometimes they were thrilled by the reports that he had appeared in Germany, and had been seen and spoken to by many of his happy subjects.



The Emperor Barbarossa Asleep in the Kyffhäuser.

But as the years passed this belief crystallized into the legend that he was living enchanted in the Kyffhäuser Mountain. It was said that he sat asleep in a castle deep under ground, before a marble table, through which his great red beard had grown, and that he woke up every hundred years to ask if the ravens were still flying outside. When they flew no longer overhead, then the old emperor would awaken for good, come forth from the castle with his army, and found a grand and new em-

pire. You will find many allusions to this legend in German literature, and it is a favorite theme with their poets.

While Frederick was in Palestine, his oldest son, Henry VI., was regent, and he now came to the throne. In the same year, on the death of William II., King of Sicily, Henry claimed that crown in right of Constance his wife, daughter of King Roger. He and his wife were

crowned at Rome in 1191, and he made an unsuccessful attempt to conquer Naples. It was Henry who secured from Leopold, Duke of Austria, the royal prisoner, Richard I. of England, who had been captured while making his way through that country homeward on his return from Palestine. Henry kept the "Lion-Hearted" a prisoner for nearly a year, and then released him on the payment of a heavy ransom.

Henry formed an ambitious scheme of conquering the Greek Empire and Africa as well. He was crowned at Palermo in 1194, and was absorbed in laying his plans when he died of a complaint which is the rarest known among kings and emperors: he drank too much water from a cold spring.

From this time forward to the beginning of the Hapsburg line, in 1273, there was so much turmoil that it is useless to give the particulars. You will find the full list of the rulers at the conclusion of this history; but some of them are not entitled to any notice. The German emperors at that period was Frederick II., grandson of Barbarossa, who ruled from 1215 to 1246. He was highly intellectual and cultured, and his court at Palermo was famous for its magnificence and splendor. He was an accomplished monarch, and compelled, through



Stone Relief of the Emperor Barbarossa on a Window of the Cloister of St. Zeno at Reichenhall, in the Raw Art of the Twelfth Century.

The greatest of

his obligations to the Pope, to undertake two expeditions to the Holy Land. The first was a failure, but the second was successful. There was no end to his contests with the



Statue of the Emperor Frederick II. in Palermo.

Italian cities and the Papacy until his death in 1250, when he was succeeded by Conrad IV., who reigned but four years. He left an infant son, only two years old, Conrardin (Little Conrad), who was carefully reared and educated, and would have been crowned at the age of ten had not the Pope opposed it.

Upon the death of Conrad IV. the Pope claimed that Naples and Sicily were forfeited to the church, and he gave Sicily to Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX. of France. The ruling king was the uncle of Conrardin,

and, making resistance to the Pope, he was slain. Determined to avenge the death of his uncle, Conrardin raised a considerable force and marched into the territory of Naples. He was defeated and made prisoner by Charles, who ordered him to be executed. Conrardin and his friend,



The Emperor Frederick II. Receives an Embassy from the Sultan Saladin.

There was much curios learning among the Saracens, especially in mathematics and chemistry; studies in which Frederick delighted. He made a ten years' truce with them, freeing, for that length of time, Jerusalem from the presence of the infidel.

Frederick of Baden, also a mere boy, were led to the scaffold, while the brutal Charles sat at a window of his palace, gloating over the scene. Only the presence of the royal guards prevented a revolt by the sympathetic spectators.

While standing on the scaffold, Conradin threw his glove among his friends, that some one might take it up and avenge his death. "O mother," he exclaimed, "what sorrow I have caused thee!" and then knelt to receive the fatal blow. Fourteen others, including Frederick of Baden, were executed at the same time. Thus died in 1268, at the age of sixteen, the last of the Hohenstauffens. Fourteen



Effigies of "Henry the Lion" and his Wife Mechtild in the Minster of Brunswick, Built by Himself A. D. 1172-1194.

years later occurred the *massacre of the Sicilian Vespers*, when 8,000 French were slain, and the detested Charles of Anjou was driven from Sicily.



Execution of Conradin, the Last of the Hohenstauffens.

Conradin threw his glove into the throng. It was picked up and brought to Peter III. of Aragon, whose descendants afterwards ruled over Sicily.
7—*Ellis' Germany.*

Now comes one of the darkest periods in German history. Lasting from 1254 to 1273, it is called the Great Interregnum, when the country was filled with feudal castles, with robber barons, with quarreling, fighting, drinking, carousing, ignorance, outlawry, crime—when might alone made right, and life and property were never secure. The Italian republics had become independent, and the rest of Germany was composed of dukedoms, principalities, bishoprics, held together by the flimsiest of threads. As you will notice, there were three persons who bore the name of king, but you will also notice that in each case the title was “merely nominal.”

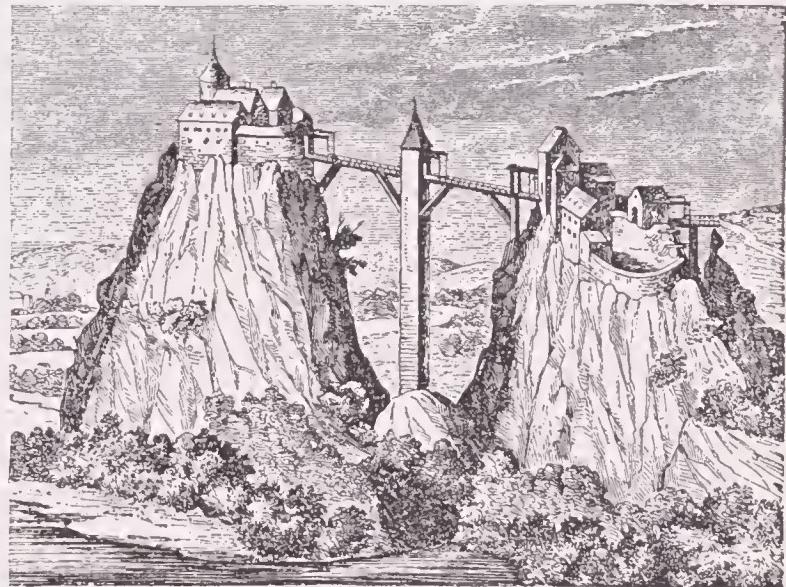
As has been said, many of the vassals were richer than the king, and had as much power. All that they owed to him was military service, and when that was rendered they did as they pleased without asking permission of him. It may be said that there was almost no morality or religion, though many professed it. Men were coarse and brutal of speech and in their conduct, and a person guilty of the most shameless crimes had no trouble in settling it with a fine called a *moneybote*.

The peasants or serfs lived like animals in miserable hovels near the castle to whose lord they looked for protection. In the towns you would find wooden houses, with rude conveniences. The castles were vast, gloomy structures, standing on some high hill or place that it was almost impossible to reach. Surrounded by massive walls, ditches, drawbridges and everything that tended to give strength and security, the owner might bid defiance to all enemies, for, when the use of gunpowder was unknown,

the walls were impregnable to the rude implements of warfare. Some of the castles did sustain sieges lasting for many months, with no other inconvenience to the defenders than that of being held within the walls without the liberty of venturing forth to rob and kill whomsoever was unfortunate enough to fall in their way.

With the castle and grounds covering so much area, water was always at command, while enough food was kept in store to last for years. From the towers, windows and tops of the walls the defenders launched their arrows from crossbow and bow, or flung down heavy stones on the heads of their besiegers, who perhaps, after long months of trying, were able to break through a wall with their battering rams and possibly to overcome the garrison.

What a weary, degrading life those people lived! When not engaged in war or pillage, the nobles and their retainers spent the time in carousing, feasting, enlivened now and then by bloody brawls. Rarely or never was a book seen in one of the castles, for, printing not being invented, every volume had to be copied by hand, and not only was costly, but very few knew enough to write



Wildenstein Castle.

their names. It was no uncommon thing in a castle, whose occupants numbered a thousand or more, that not a single person was able to sign his name. The women spent the time in embroidery, spinning, making banners, weaving gold fringe, or playing the harp or lute. Many of them



German Kirmess, Showing Manners and Customs of the Peasantry, the Prevailing Drunkenness and Rowdyism, and that all the Peasants are Armed.

were as fond of drinking and revelry as the men, and there was nothing elevating or ennobling in the routine through which all had to pass.

It would be thought that the children would have a hard time of it, but boys and girls have always been and always will be the same the world over, and I have no doubt that they had much more enjoyable times than their

older companions, except perhaps when the castles were undergoing assaults. In those far away days knives and forks were unknown, every person handling his food with his fingers. The platters were made of wood and the trenchers of pewter. Some of the grand banquets cost large sums of money, for the table linen came from Damascus; there was rich tapestry, and many of their drinking vessels were solid silver. Jugglers, minstrels and clowns were brought from a long distance to amuse the guests, for everything possible was done in the way of entertainment.

CHAPTER VII.

HOUSE OF HAPSBURG (1273-1308); HOUSE OF LUXEMBURG AND BAVARIA (1308-1438).

WITH Germany torn by anarchy and split into warring fragments, she needed a wise, strong, able, stern patriot to take the helm and steer the ship of state past the breakers that were threatening her ruin, and providentially she got exactly what was needed in Rudolph of Hapsburg, who was a true knight, a thorough patriot and the man of whom the Archbishop of Cologne said: "He reveres the church, he is a lover of justice, a man of prudent counsels and piety, beloved of

God and man, possessing an agreeable form and countenance, and which, although of a stern expression, still when he speaks is invested with an air of affability which inspires confidence; he possesses, besides, a hardy constitution, and in his wars against the faithless he has always been successful."

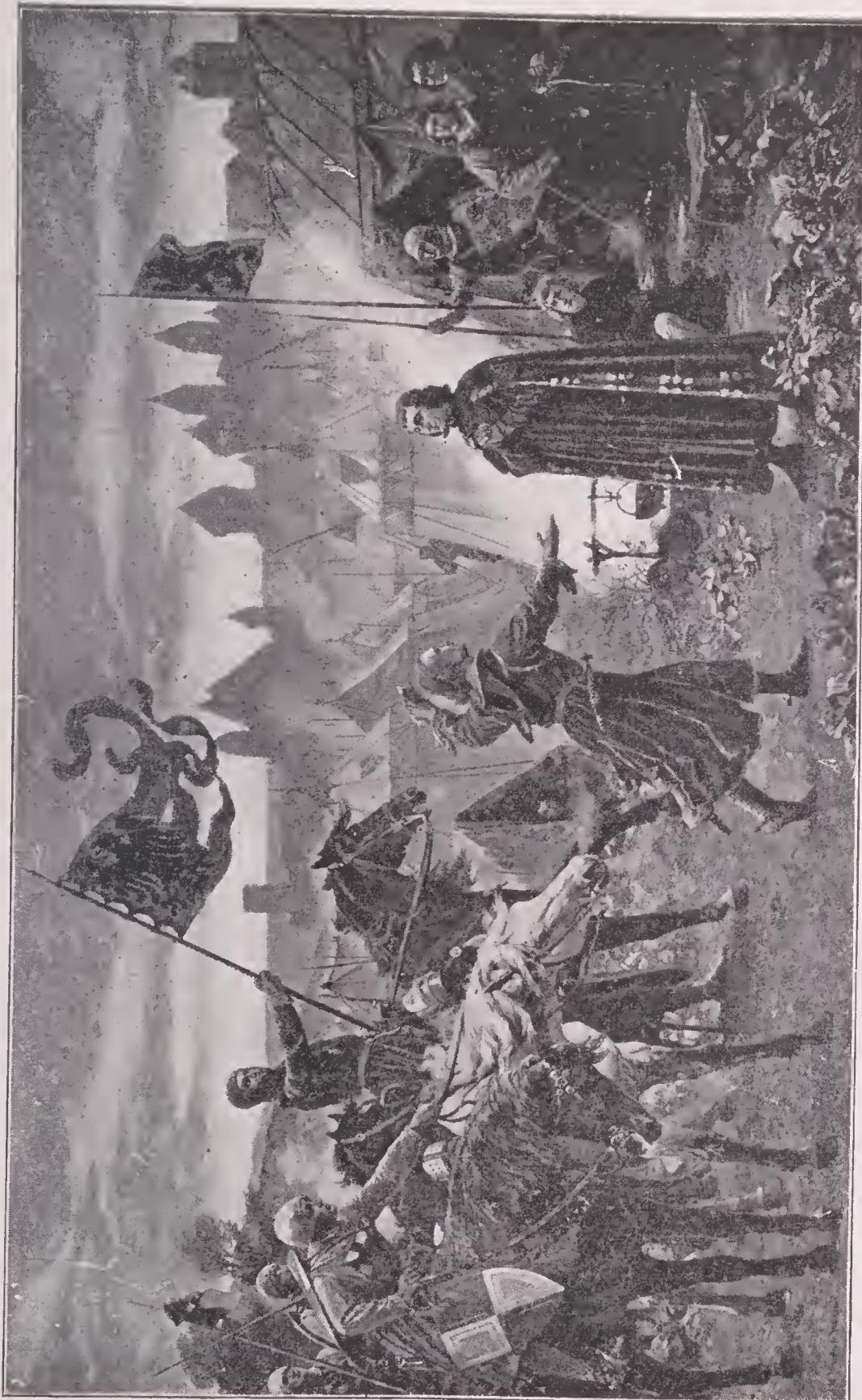
So Rudolph was crowned King of Germany at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1273. Although he was always called "Emperor" by the people, he never received or desired the imperial crown of Rome, nor did he ever visit that city. He was accustomed to compare it with the



Statue of Rudolph of Hapsburg in the Dome of Strasburg Cathedral.

den of a lion, into which, he grimly said, the tracks of many other animals led, but no tracks were seen leading out again.

Rudolph met Pope Gregory X. at Lausanne (*lo-zan'*), and formally renounced all claims to the rights held by the Hohenstauffens in Italy, and recognized Charles of



Rudolph of Hapsburg Receives the News of his Election as Emperor of Germany.

At the coronation of Rudolph the sceptre upon which the princes renewed their feudal tenures could not be found. Rudolph seized a crucifix, and, holding it up, cried : "The symbol of our redemption secures us heaven : surely it is good enough to confirm to us our parcels of earth."

Anjou as King of Sicily and Naples. The last thought that had been in the mind of Rudolph was of being chosen to the exalted office. It was at midnight that Frederick of Hohenzollern, his brother-in-law, arrived at the camp of Rudolph with the astonishing news. He refused at first to believe it, but it was confirmed, and, as I have said, his elevation pleased everybody.

Rudolph devoted his time to restoring order in Germany, and among the first who received his unwelcome attentions were the robber barons. Those bloody vagabonds had been accustomed to plunder and murder at will, but they were now routed out of their nests and their power for evil destroyed. On one of his visits to Thuringia he leveled sixty-six castles to the ground and hanged twenty-nine nobles whose crimes had made them a terror to the country. One defiant prince he besieged, captured and compelled to toil with his own hands in tearing down the walls of his massive castle. He permitted persons of rank, however, to build fortresses for defence against the freebooters. Ottokar II., the powerful King of Bohemia, wanted the German crown, and would not acknowledge Rudolph's authority. The latter outlawed him, and in his victory at Marchfield, near Vienna, the King of Bohemia was slain. Rudolph was the founder of the Hapsburg-Austrian dynasty, and, worn out with disease and cares, he died in 1291, at the age of seventy-four.

Rudolph was anxious to be succeeded by his son Albert, but the nobles and princes dreaded the rigor and firmness shown by the father, and chose Adolphus of

Nassau. He tried to follow in the policy of Rudolph, but lacked his capacity, and, as he grew independent, the nobles stirred up Albert to make war against the king. He did this with such success that Adolphus was killed in battle, and, in 1298, Albert became king, as it would seem he ought to have been from the first.

But Albert was a very different man from what his father had been. It would be hard to imagine a more disagreeable looking person. In the first place, he had but one eye. How do you suppose he lost the other? One time he fell ill, and his physicians said he had been poisoned. So he was hung up by the heels and one eye taken out of its socket in order that the poison might escape from his head! He was "big-nosed, loose-lipped, ill-mannered, grasping, selfish and overbearing." When Pope Boniface heard of his election, he exclaimed in disgust: "How can such a one-eyed lout be Emperor of the Romans!" The Pope refused to sanction his election and excommunicated him, but was afterward reconciled to him.

Albert aimed to bring several countries under subjection, but was only partly successful. His hopes were turned upon Thuringia, Bohemia and Holland, and in



Seal of Adolphus of Nassau.

the spring of 1308 he went to his hereditary estates on the borders of Switzerland to make peace among the insurgent Swiss and to procure forces with which to press a war against Bohemia. His companion was John of Suabia, the son of his brother Rudolph, from whom he unjustly withheld his share of the Hapsburg estates. John entered

into a plot with several knights, and, after crossing the Reuss River, they suddenly fell upon the king and stabbed him to death.

I am sure you have heard the anecdote of William Tell, which belongs to this period. The story is that Gesler, the Austrian governor, ordered Tell to do homage to a hat placed on the top of a pole, a symbol of his tyranny, and for refusing to obey Tell was sentenced to shoot an apple

Seal of Albert of Austria.



from the head of his little son. He performed the wonderful feat without harm to his boy, but the tyrant ordered him imprisoned. Tell leaped ashore from a boat in a violent storm on Lake Lucerne, and, turning about, launched an arrow from his unerring bow through the heart of the tyrant. The story is a pretty one, but I am compelled to say the best authorities agree that the incident never took place. I fear that it is like that other anecdote of Smith and Pocahontas, which we should all be glad to believe, but are hardly justified in doing so.

Be that as it may, the valiant Swiss mountaineers rose in revolt against the tyranny of the House of Hapsburg, which from an early period held control over all the eastern part of Switzerland. In 1307 the provinces of Uri (*oo're*), Schwyz (*shvitz*) and Unterwalden (*oon'ter-wal-den*) entered into a confederacy for mutual aid against Austria. The struggle for independence lasted a number of years, and was attended by many incidents of heroism on the part of the brave men struggling for freedom. In the month of November, 1315, at the battle of Morgarten, the Austrian army, much the superior in numbers, well disciplined and protected by armor, was annihilated by the Swiss, who rolled down masses of rocks upon their heads when they were crowded in a mountain pass, and then, with their crude weapons, attacked them with resistless impetuosity.

After the death of Albert the German princes followed their rule of not choosing several emperors from the same house in succession, and elected Count Henry of Luxemburg. He was a valiant knight, but his reign was brief, lasting only from 1308 to 1313. The king having been deposed in Bohemia, Henry got the crown for his son. Then in 1310 he entered Italy with the determination to hold his authority in Lombardy, and to renew the imperial power throughout the peninsula. Although crowned in Milan and Rome, he was bitterly resisted in all quarters. While waiting for reinforcements, he was seized with fever and died in Sienna (*si-en'na*) in 1313.

Now came another dreary period of wrangling and fighting, in which the Luxemburg and Hapsburg lines

opposed each other, with Louis of Bavaria the leader of the former and Frederick, the Handsome, leader of Hapsburg. Frederick soon died, and Louis had the field to himself. The Papacy had its seat at Avignon (*ah-veen-yon'*), in the south of France, from 1308 to 1378, and because Louis refused to submit to its demands he was excommunicated. Louis failed, as did all other German emperors, to maintain a lasting rule in Italy, and was compelled to return to Germany. Then the Pope at Avignon demanded that Louis should abdicate; but the electors decreed that the king elected by them did not require the Papal recognition. But Louis had made himself so disliked by his greed and selfish conduct, that there was a strong disposition to depose him. The emperor died suddenly in 1347, and the rival King Gunther, of Schwartzburg, who had been set up, lived but a short time.

It followed, therefore, that Charles IV. was accepted by all parties as German king. He was the son of John of Luxemburg, King of Bohemia. He lost no time in making terms with the Pope, and was crowned at Milan and by the cardinals in Rome. When he came back to Germany he acquired a good deal of territory by treaty, and did much for his native Bohemia. He made his home at Prague, where he founded the first German university in 1348, and also the famous universities of Heidelberg and Vienna. The most important act of his reign was the issue of the "Golden Bull," in 1356, by which the electors of the German empire and their mode of election were set forth. The Golden Bull was so named because it was inclosed in a gold case. The college of electors thus



The Battle of Morgarten.

The Swiss peasants used their halberds, clubs and swords so well, with huge stones rolled down from above, that the Austrian army retreated with a heavy loss.

chosen lasted, with few changes, for 450 years, when the German empire was extinguished by Napoleon Bonaparte.



Two-sided Golden Seal of Charles IV.

You can understand what sort of a ruler this individual was when told that among the titles by which he is remembered is that of "The Worthless" and of "Lazy Wenzel." He was moody, slothful, a drunkard and had an ugly temper. All he cared for was the pursuit of gross pleasures, and so long as he could be gratified the country might go to the dogs so far as he was concerned.

And it may almost be said that that is what took place, until, losing all patience, the nobles deposed him in 1400, and bestowed the crown upon Rupert of the Palatinate. Lazy Wenzel roused himself to fight against this, and Ru-

During the first years of his reign the awful pestilence known as the "Black Plague" ravaged Europe. Charles died in 1378, having had his son Wenceslaus chosen king just before his death.



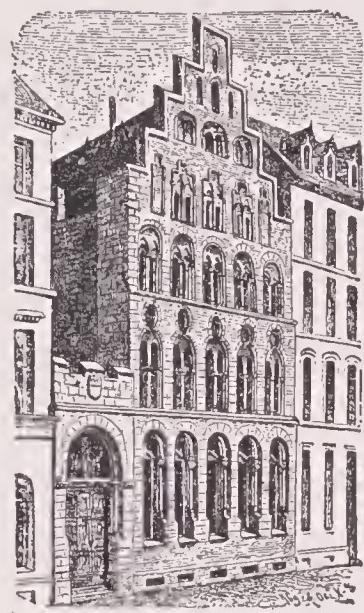
Miniatire from the "Golden Bull" of Charles IV.

The Emperor Charles IV. in the centre, his son, King Wenzel, on his right, Bishops on his left hand.

pert had a hard time in enforcing his own authority and restoring order to the empire. In the midst of the strife he died in 1410.

The different electors now chose Jossus of Moravia, and Wenzel's brother, Sigismund; and as Wenzel still kept up his warfare for his rights, the empire had no less than three nuisances, claiming to be kings at the same time: but Jossus soon died, and Wenzel was finally persuaded to yield. So Sigismund was unanimously chosen German king in 1410.

Sigismund had been King of Hungary, and because of his many accomplishments has been called the "Light of the World." His reign lasted until 1438, and was marked by a number of important events. A great schism, or division, existed at that time in the church, there being one Pope in Italy, another in France and a third in Spain, each launching the ban of excommunication against the others and those who sided with them. At last the famous council of the church was held in 1414 at Constance, and never was there a more brilliant assemblage, for, in addition to the Pope, there were present the patriarchs of Constantinople, twenty-two cardinals, twenty archbishops, ninety-two bishops, one hundred and twenty-four abbots, one thousand eight hundred of the lower



The "Temple House" in Cologne.

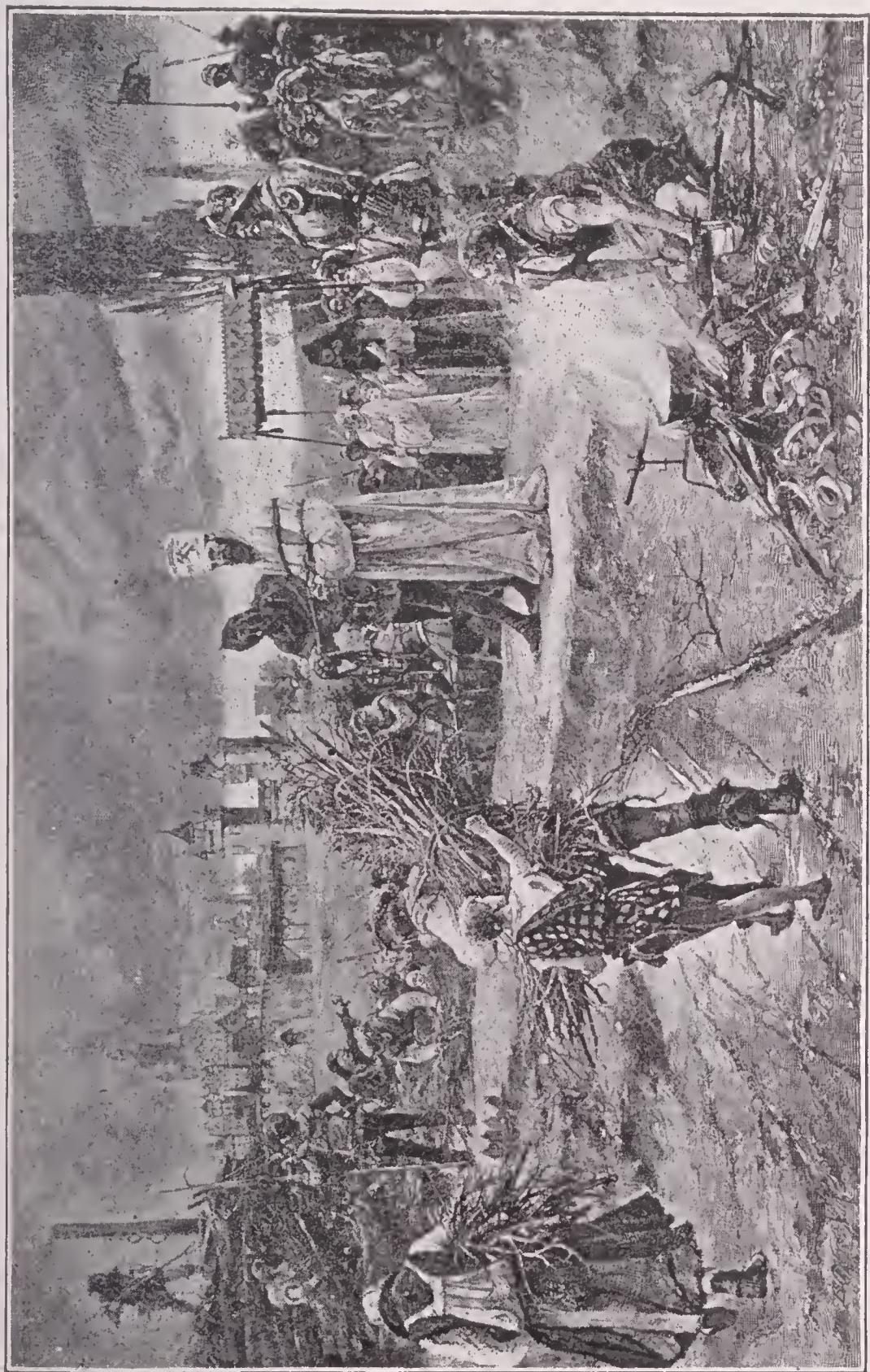
The oldest preserved private dwelling in Germany; built in the beginning of the thirteenth century.

clergy, a multitude of doctors of science and masters of arts, besides the graduates of the Universities of Paris, Orleans, Cologne, Vienna and others; some sixteen hundred princes, nobles, counts and knights with their retinues; the whole number in attendance being more than 100,000.

The only Pope present was John XXIII., of Rome, who had convoked the assembly in the hope of having his opponents deposed and himself confirmed. The council, however, decided that the true course was to depose all three. Martin V. was elected and the great schism ended.

John Huss, the most zealous and learned of the Bohemian professors, was rector of the University of Prague. He embraced the doctrines of John Wickliffe, who lived about thirty years before, which doctrines were at variance with those held by those around him. He was so radical and earnest in his views that he was ordered to appear at Rome to answer the charge of heresy. He did not obey, and was excommunicated, but he gained a great many friends and followers. He was now ordered to come before the council at Constance, and obeyed, the emperor Sigismund having pledged him safe conduct, but he broke his pledge and allowed Huss to be arrested and thrown into jail.

Huss was now commanded to recant all his doctrines, on pain of being condemned to die at the stake as a heretic. Without hesitation he chose the latter, and on the 6th of July, 1415, was led to execution. He was publicly burned in Constance, and his ashes cast into the Rhine, that they might not serve as an object of veneration to the Bohemians.



8—Ellis' Germany.

John Huss Led to Execution in Constance.

Praying and singing psalms of praise, Huss walked to the stake. As the flames rose around him he sang a hymn; cried three times, "Father, into Thy hands I commit my spirit;" then his head bowed, and he died. No martyr ever met death with more intrepidity.

This frightful crime led to a furious war, which lasted sixteen years. The armies of Bohemia, or Hussites, were led by the famous John Ziska, who by nature was probably one of the greatest of all military geniuses. He had but one eye at the beginning of hostilities, and the remaining eye was destroyed by an arrow, but the blind warrior continued to direct the Hussites with marvelous skill. The fanatical fury of his followers swept every obstacle from their path. The armies of Sigismund met defeat after defeat. A treaty was made in 1422, by which the religious liberty of the Hussites in Bohemia was acknowledged, but the war was afterward renewed and did not end until 1434.

The Hussites after a time divided into the moderate and the radical parties. The latter were under the direction of Procopius the Great and Procopius the Little, who would listen to no compromise. They were as merciless as so many jungle tigers, and committed the most shocking atrocities upon those whose only offence was that they held different opinions. Procopius the Great laid siege to Naumburg, in Saxony, in 1432, and there seemed no possible escape of the inhabitants from torture and death, when the little children came forth and begged mercy at the hands of the grim old warrior. The unexpected sight moved his heart to show for the first and only time, so far as known, kindness to the vanquished. The town was spared.

While the Hussite war was under way, Sigismund marched against the Ottoman Turks, and defeated them in a great battle near Nissa, in 1419, thus checking for a con-



The Children of Naumburg Appeal to Procopius the Great.

The Hussites built massive wagons, which were converted into barricades for their camps, which they defended with clubs, scythes, flails and spears. Before these rude weapons and their inspired battle-hymns their enemies turned and fled, often before they came in sight.

siderable time the Ottoman conquests on the eastern frontier. Sigismund died in 1437, at the age of sixty-nine, having reigned fifty-one years as King of Hungary and twenty-eight years as Emperor of Germany. With his death terminated the House of Luxemburg and Bavaria.

I have already referred to the gallant struggle made by the Swiss for independence. In 1386, with an army of 4,000 Austrian and Suabian knights, Leopold of Austria invaded the Cantons. The Swiss gathered 1,300 herds-men, fishers and farmers, armed with halberds and battle-axes, and met the invaders at Sempach, on the 9th of July. The fight was desperate, and for a long time no way opened for breaking the solid front, or of reaching the soldiers with their weapons. It was then that Arnold of Winkelreid called out: "Brothers, I will open a way for you! Take care of my wife and children!"

Then he ran forward at full speed from the ranks, threw himself upon the enemy, grasping with both arms as many of the spears as he was able, buried them in his body, and sank dead to the ground. Never was a braver deed done, and his comrades rushed through the breach thus made, and defeated and overthrew the Austrians. Duke Leopold himself and nearly 700 of his followers were killed, and the rest fled in all directions. The victory was one of the most astonishing recorded in history. Two years later the Swiss won another great victory at Nafels, and since then they have ever remained an independent nation.



Heroic Death of Arnold von Winkelried at the Battle of Sempach.

"‘ Make way for liberty ’ he cried ; made way for liberty, and died.”

CHAPTER VIII.

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA. 1438-1745.

SLOWLY the world was emerging from that gloomy period known as the Dark Ages. Men were advancing in learning, in the principles of justice and in civilization. A few works were written and have been preserved to us, the famous *Song of Roland* having been given to the world in the twelfth century by a monk named Conrad; but books were few and costly until a great impulse came with the invention of printing.

It seems curious that it is not known with certainty to whom the credit is due for the invention of this art. The Dutch say it belongs to Laurens Coster, of Harlaem, who effected it in 1423, but the more general belief is that the invention was made by John Gutenberg, of Mentz, in 1436. It is known that Gutenberg, in 1450, entered into partnership with John Faust, or Fust, the latter providing the means for putting the invention to use. The work of printing the Bible in Latin was partly finished, when the partnership was dissolved, in 1455. In the following year Gutenberg completed the printing of the Bible. Meanwhile, Faust had formed a partnership with his son-in-law, Peter Schöffer, and printed a number of books. The credit of the invention of printing by means of blocks of carved wood seems to belong to Coster, but Gutenberg invented the movable types, while Schöffer

and Faust first founded types of metal, the part of Faust being that of capitalist.

cu docerem doceñu doceñu pſco cu doct⁹ ſum l fueri
ſis l fuſis ſit l fuit ap̄l̄ cu docti ſum l fuerim⁹ ſis l fueri
as ſic l fuerit P̄tito p̄l̄q̄ pſco cu doct⁹ eſſe l fuſſe eēs ul
fuſſes eēt l fuſſi; ap̄l̄ cu docti eēm⁹ l fuſſem⁹ eēd̄l fuſſ
ſetis eēnt⁹ fuſſet fuſo cu doct⁹ ero l fuſeo eis l fuſis eit l fu
eit ap̄l̄ cu docti eēm⁹ l fuſim⁹ eis l fuſit is eit ul fuerit
Inſuſto mō ſā nuſi a pſoiſ tpe p̄n̄ti a p̄nto ipſco doceſ
p̄nto pſco a p̄l̄q̄ pſco doctū eēl fuſſe fuſo doctū iſi Puo
p̄n̄ipia mūt a ubo paſſio p̄n̄tu ut doct⁹ fuſue ut doceſd⁹

Ego legis legit ap̄l̄ legim⁹ legitis legūt P̄tito ipſco
ſco legebā legebas legebat ap̄l̄ legebam⁹ legeba
tis legebat P̄tito pſco legi legit̄i legit ap̄l̄ legim⁹ legit
tis legerūt ul legere P̄tito p̄l̄q̄ pſco legerā legeras lege
rat ap̄l̄ legeam⁹ legeans legerat Futuo legam̄ leges le
get ap̄l̄ legemus legent Impatiuo modo tēpōe
plen ad ſecuſdā a tertīā pſonam lege legat ap̄l̄ lega
mus legite legant Futuro legito nu legito ille ap̄l̄ lega
mus legitote legunto ul le guntote Optatiuo modo tē
pore p̄n̄ti a p̄teſto ipſco ut legerem legeres legeret etpl̄
ut legeremus legeretis legerent P̄tito pſco a p̄l̄q̄ pſco
ut legiſſem legiſſes legiſſet ap̄l̄ ut legiſſemus legiſſetis
legiſſent Futuo ut legā legas legat ap̄l̄ ut legamus le
gatis legant Coniunctuo mō tē p̄e p̄n̄ti cu legam legas
legat ap̄l̄ cu legam⁹ legatis legant P̄tito ipſco nu le
gerē legeres legeret ap̄l̄ cu legeremus legerens legerent
P̄tito pſco cu legerim legeris legerit ap̄l̄ cu legerim⁹
legeratis legeri ut P̄tento plus qm̄pſco cum legiſſem

The First Impression from the Press of John Gutenberg.

In this fac-simile the first nine lines are printed from

very soft metal, the next nine lines from harder, and the last three from metal such as is in use to-day.

Another important invention came into use about this time: this was gunpowder, which made it easier for men to kill one another. True, hundreds of thousands of people had already been slain by means of bows and arrows, spears, battle-axes, knives and such things, but what men yearned for was something that would make the murdering of their fellow-beings easier. Therefore, they hailed the infernal compound with delight.

As to who was the real inventor of gunpowder less is known than about printing. No doubt it was used by the Chinese before the Christian era. It is described in an Arabic manuscript of the year 1249, and in the works of Roger Bacon (1214–1292), who is generally regarded as the true inventor, though some authorities ascribe it to the German monk, Berthold Schwartz, in 1320. Gunpowder is believed to have been first used at the battle of Agincourt (*a-zhan-koor'*), in 1415, but it did not come into general use until a considerable time afterward. At first reliance was placed more upon the terrifying reports, which threw the cavalry into confusion, than the execution of the missiles themselves.

The successor of Sigismund was his son-in-law, Albert II. He was a virtuous, well-meaning prince, who doubtless would have proven an excellent ruler, but he died in the second year of his reign, after his return from an expedition against the Turks. He was succeeded by his cousin, Duke Frederick of Austria, whose reign lasted for fifty-four years. He was lazy, eccentric and the ab-

ject slave of the Papal power. He was wholly under the influence of his secretary, who ruled him in the sole interest of the Church of Rome.

Frederick III. determined to reconquer the former Haps-



The Battle of Basle, August 26, 1444.

burg possessions from the Swiss, and he seemed to have good reason to hope for success, since there was a quarrel among some of the Cantons. Not having the troops he needed in Germany, he applied to Charles II., of France,

who let him have 30,000, which force marched into Switzerland, and on the 26th of August, 1444, met 1600 devoted patriots near Basle, who ceased fighting at the end of ten hours, since not a man of them was left alive. The French themselves had suffered so severely that they abandoned the country in disgust.

The long reign of Frederick was attended by great disorder throughout the empire, the particulars of which are not worth the space they would occupy. The frontiers were continually harried by old and new enemies, while there



Portrait Medal of Frederick III.

were as many bloody feuds as you will find to-day in the mountainous districts of our own Kentucky. Hungary, which had formed a part of the empire, was lost to it, and the Turk advanced into Austria. Frederick shouted in vain for help, and allowed Duke Charles the Bold, of Burgundy, to seize Lorraine without opposition.

Then, thinking out a new scheme of getting Burgundy back, he married his son Maximilian to Maria, only daughter of Charles the Bold. The prompt result was a war with France, which in the end kept that country herself.

What little government Frederick had over Germany he passed to his son, several years before the official end of his reign. It was not unnatural that the emperor should grow weary of playing the monarch, which he had acted



Death of Charles the Bold while in Flight after the Battle of Nancy.

"From the huts on the verge of eternal snow to the junction of the Aar with the Rhine" the Swiss thronged to battle with Charles the Bold. They defeated him at Morat, and again at Granson, and again at Nancy, where, the day after the battle, his dead body was found with his face frozen in a pool of water.

C.
H. Wolf
Gloss.

with such ill-success. He made his home at Linz (*lentz*), and gave his whole time to religion and the study of alchemy. His biographers tell of his peculiar habit of

closing a door behind him by thrusting back his right foot. One day he kicked too hard, and so injured his leg that his physicians had to amputate it. Since he was seventy-eight years old, this accident hastened his death, which took place in August, 1493.

Another curious incident must be told about this royal failure, who considered himself one of the greatest monarchs in Christendom. All his books were stamped with the vowels A, E, I, O, U, and nobody was able to find out



The Emperor Maximilian I.
From a wood-cut by Albrecht Dürer. 1519.

what they meant until after his death. Then it was learned that the letters are the initials of *Alles Erdreich Ist Oesterreich Unterthan*, meaning, "All earth is subject to Austria."

Now, since Maximilian had been elected king in 1486,

he began exercising imperial power without any further formalities because of his father's death. He was very popular, and much was expected of him, for he was known to possess all the qualities of a great ruler (of which the jumbled empire stood in sore need), with the important exceptions of prudence and the ability to think twice before he acted once.

Personally he was one of the handsomest men in the empire—tall, finely formed, with manly features, bright blue eyes and blonde, silken hair, which fell in curls about his shoulders. He was immensely powerful, and was one of the most skillful and daring knights of his day.

He was addicted to no bad habits, often marched on foot with his men, carrying his lance at the head of his troops, and, what was remarkable in a king, he knew how to forge his armor and temper his sword. He was well educated, with no avarice, but generous to a fault, and but for his habit of acting from impulse would have proven one of the best emperors Germany ever had,



A Military Execution by the Provost, Showing Costume and Armor of Lansquenets, time of Maximilian.

He was the first German emperor to assume the imperial title without being crowned in Rome, and all his successors followed his example.

It was inevitable that Maximilian should be engaged in many wars, for that was the chief amusement of those in authority, and had he not resisted the enemies crowding his frontiers, Germany would have been overrun and wiped off the map. Italy was a continual thorn in the side of the empire, and the emperor did not succeed in maintaining his authority there. Then he had a good deal of fighting to attend to elsewhere, especially with France and the Swiss Confederates, who made such good progress in the art and science of war that they were not afraid of anybody or any nation.

In 1495, at the Diet of Worms, Maximilian insisted upon being granted strict regulations for raising an army. His demands were only partly granted, but something substantial was attained in the way of an imperial constitution.

You will recall that through his marriage Maximilian was possessed of the Netherlands, which belonged to the kingdom of Burgundy, and he pictured great things for his son Philip and his descendants. This son Philip had married the daughter of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile, the two rulers of Spain who furnished Columbus with the means of discovering America. The history of Bohemia and Hungary will show how, in the course of the following hundred years, the House of Hapsburg was more firmly established than any one dared to hope.

By a treaty concluded at Basle in 1499 the emperor

formally acknowledged the independence of Switzerland. Without attempting to follow the intricate thread of events, you must bear an important fact in mind: the first idea of a vast, all-embracing empire, which should include the whole West, had been proven impossible. Slowly but surely the idea became that of a compact German kingdom. The right of voting was originally confined to the nobles and then the seven electors; but it was enlarged by the Golden Bull to what may be called a confederacy, which expanded as the need arose. Then the towns next sought to gain greater rights for themselves. It was a hard fight, for there was much opposition and the progress was slow, but the general use of printing proved a tremendous factor. Between the founding of the university and the Reformation, fifteen of the greatest German universities were established, and learning was more generally diffused throughout Germany than in any other country.



Siege of a Town Under Maximilian I.
From the "Triumphal Arch of Maximilian," one
of the masterpieces of Albrecht Dürer.

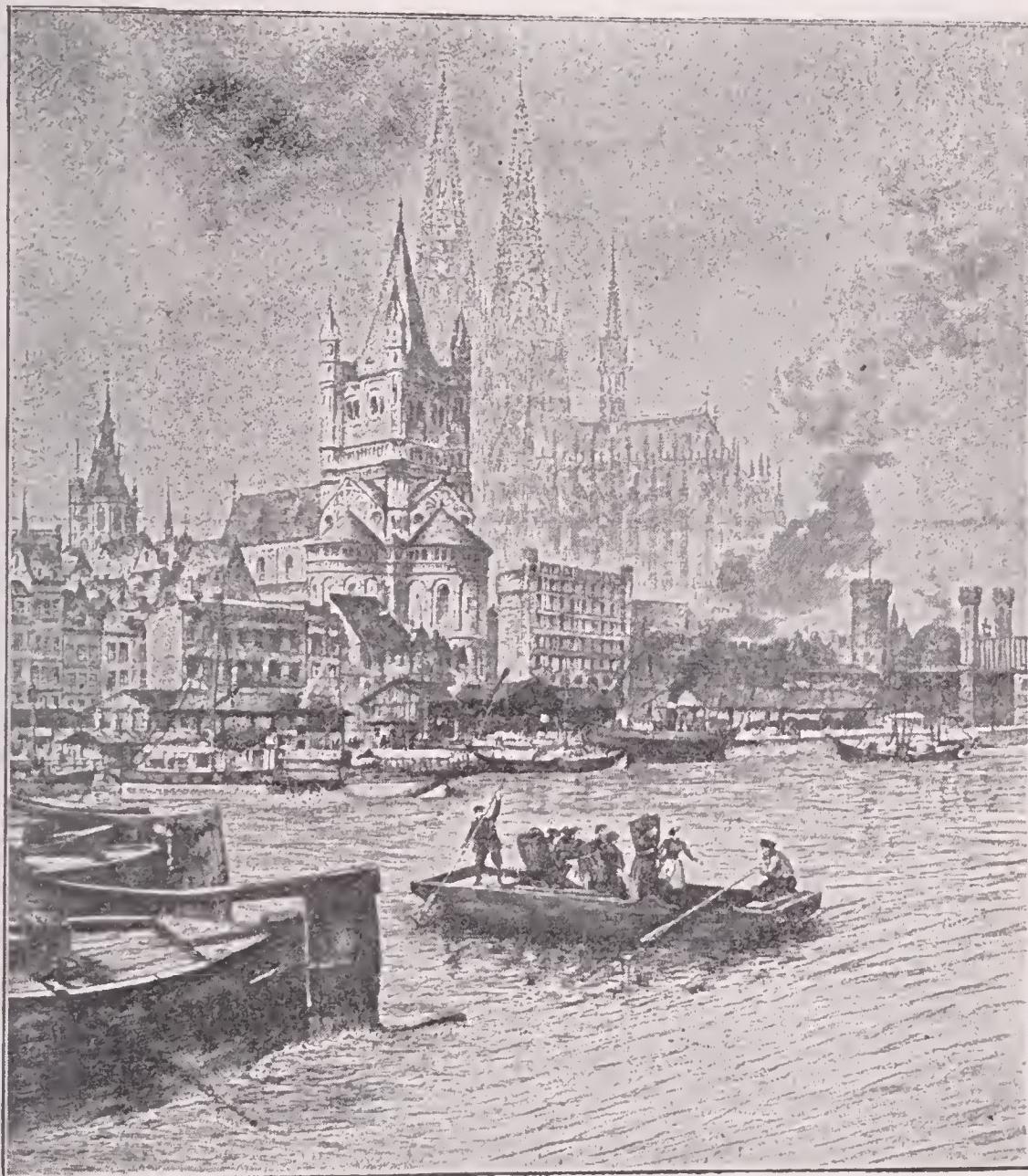
and the progress was slow, but the general use of printing proved a tremendous factor. Between the founding of the university and the Reformation, fifteen of the greatest German universities were established, and learning was more generally diffused throughout Germany than in any other country.

One good accomplished by the invention of gunpowder was the extinguishment of chivalry. There was a time when to be a knight meant all that the name implied, but chivalry had become corrupt, grotesque, shameless and detestable. A man on horseback, even if clothed in armor, could not do much with spear and battle-axe against a man on foot with a well-aimed gun at his shoulder; so the knight had to come down off his horse and adopt the new style of fighting.

Art and science flourished, and in the wealthy imperial towns splendid halls and famous cathedrals were built. That of Cologne, or Minster of St. Peter, a vast and imposing Gothic edifice, was begun August 15, 1248, and precisely 600 years afterward (1848) the edifice was opened. The building of these fine structures encouraged the arts of painting on glass and of wood carving, which attained a perfection that has never been surpassed since that time.

In the thirteenth century the famous league of cities, known as the Hansa or Hanseatic League, was formed, with the purpose of protecting their ships against pirates and for extending commerce. The first to form a union were Hamburg and Lubeck, but they were soon joined by Brunswick, Bremen, Cologne, Dantzig and a large number of other towns. These grew to be very powerful, and exercised an important influence on the civilization and commercial prosperity of Germany. The deputies met every three years at Lubeck, and the confederacy reached its highest influence and power in the fourteenth century. The last general assembly met in 1630.

The decline of the League was due to the discovery of India by the Portuguese and of America by the Span-



The City of Cologne from the Rhine.
The Minster of St. Peter in the distance.

iards, because of which commerce shifted to the west of Europe.

Emperor Maximilian, feeling his end drawing near, took up his abode in the little town of Wels, where he died in January, 1519, in the sixtieth year of his age.

CHAPTER IX.

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA (*Continued*). 1438-1745.

Luther and the Reformation.

IT is a curious coincidence that we must now give an account of two of the greatest men in mediæval history, for they lived at the same time, their lives ran parallel, their influence was vast and far-reaching, they were often in collision, and yet each in his way did a work of importance almost beyond estimate. They were Charles V. and Martin Luther.

First, as to Charles V., who was born at Ghent (French, *gōn*; English, *ghent*) in the year 1500. He was the son of Philip, Archduke of Austria, and his mother was the second daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Castile and Aragon. He passed his early years in Flanders, where he was educated. On the death of his grandfather, Maximilian, there was a keen contest for the German throne between Charles and Francis I. of France, but Charles was elected at Frankfort in 1519, and crowned at Aix-

la-Chapelle the following year. With the remark that Charles was the greatest monarch, one of the ablest military commanders and the wisest, yet the most bigoted, statesman of his time, we will reserve further account of him and his doings and turn to the history of that remarkable man, Martin Luther, for, as I have said, their histories run together.

That era in Germany and Europe known as the Reformation had been germinating for years in the hearts of a large class of people. The bitter persecutions of the Albigenses of France (as told in our



Martin Luther.

history of that country), the Waldenses in Savoy and the Wickliffites in England, the burning of John Huss and his friend Jerome, and the fearful ravages of the Hussite war had done a vast deal toward opening the eyes of Europe to the necessity of studying the Holy Word, which, because of the invention of printing, was becoming widely circulated.

Martin Luther was born in the little Saxon town of Eisleben, of poor parents, on November 10, 1483. He showed such talent and application when a boy that his parents denied themselves that they might give him a good education. He was graduated from the University of Erfurt in 1505 with honor, and, his thoughts having been turned toward religion, he became a monk of the Augustine Order, and by zealous study of the gospels gained a repose of mind and a cheerfulness which stood by him in all his after trials and sufferings.

His ability and scholarship led to his appointment as one of the professors in the new University of Wittenberg, founded by the elector, Frederick the Wise, and Luther was so successful that in 1510 he was sent by the order on a special mission to Rome. There he was horrified by the corruptions of the church and the immorality of the Pope and the cardinals. When he returned to Germany he was profoundly impressed with the necessity of rousing the clergy to their duty. Like the Puritans of England, his thought was that this work should be a *reformation*; that is, it should be wrought within the church, and he did not dream of placing himself outside the organization.

Pope Leo X. was a great lover of art and of pleasure. Finding his income insufficient to meet his wants, he set out to increase it by issuing a series of indulgences or absolutions, as they were called, for all manner of crimes, whose price was graduated according to the nature of the sin and the purse of him who wished to buy



Selling Papal Indulgences.

From a rare wood engraving by Hans Holbein : the coat-of-arms of the Medici family is everywhere visible.

them. Albert, Archbishop of Mayence, bought for a large sum the right of selling these absolutions in Germany, and sent his agent, Tetzel, a Dominican monk, peddling them through the country. Tetzel found the business highly profitable, for when some scamp had set his mind to commit a certain crime he found himself able to

buy absolution for the same *before* doing the wrong. This revolting course of action caused a great deal of indignation among good people; but the only one who dared to raise his voice in open condemnation of the practice was Luther.

On the 31st of October, 1517, he nailed on the door of the church at Wittenberg a series of ninety-five theological declarations, the truth of which he declared himself ready to prove in the face of any and all adversaries. These theses asserted that the pardon of sins came only from God, and must be bought by true repentance; that the offering of the absolutions for sale was contrary to the true doctrines of the church, and could not have been sanctioned by the Pope.

This action of Luther caused a great stir. The theses were printed and widely circulated throughout Germany, and were followed by replies in which the action of the Pope was defended. Luther was called a heretic, and was threatened with the fate of Huss. Luther loved a controversy, and defended himself vigorously by means of pamphlets, which were eagerly read. His followers increased so fast that the Pope, who had summoned him to Rome for trial, consented that he should present himself before the Papal Legate at Augsburg, who demanded of Luther to retract what he had preached and written as being contrary to the Papal bulls. In answer, Luther declared that the command of the Pope could only be respected as the voice of God, when it was not in conflict with the Holy Scriptures. This was an exceedingly bold declaration, and so daring a defiance of Papal authority

FORMES THYMIDIQUE ABSOLUE ET CONSTITUANTS DE MITA

Quoniam plenissime absolucionis et remissionis in vita
domini nostri ihesu christi est plenissima et plenaria; et absolutione. Et autem iste beatissimus petrus et paulus
apostoli. ad corinthus dicitur multa deinde et tibi dico. ego te absoluo ab omnibus peccatis tuis. secundum apostolum
ad corinthus enim. acutus doloris qualitercumque genibus. Sed apostolice referuntur. Nec non a quibusdam exhortationib;
aliosque spiritus sancti a deinceps ecclesiasticis a iure nocte ab hoste promulgans. si quis licet in Christi dando tibi plenissimam remissionem. nonne incul-
gentia a remissione. hoc quidem claves sante marie ecclesie in hac arte se extendit. In nomine patris. a filio et spiritu sancti amen.

DRAFT EDITION IN ENGLISH OF THE ALLEGED

Quileveretur uii si Dñe noſter ut ſuia Ego te abſoluo ab om̄ibꝫ pecc̄tis tuis 2x̄is 2ſeffe a oblitio refiende te donata: et fidelium a ſacramentis ecclie Remittendo lib̄ptem pugatorii quas propter culpas et offenditſ iheretariſt dando tibi plenariaam om̄ibꝫ pecc̄tū remiſſionē. In qua uā claves ſic mihi eſe in hac parte ſe extendunt. In noſte p̄tis et filii et sp̄us sancti Amen.

Andreas Probst Thunen Notizblatt

that it was sure to bring trouble. The Vicar-General of the Augustines was a friend of Luther, and, believing he was in personal danger in Augsburg, secretly let him out

of a small door in the city's wall, just as day was breaking, and supplied him with a horse. Through this prudent action Luther safely reached Wittenberg, where he was among devoted followers.

Frederick the Wise was now ordered to surrender Luther, and the Pope declared that the doctrines attacked by him were those of the church; and must be sustained as such. The elector wavered as to what he should do, but Philip Melanchthon and other leading men connected with the university heartened him, and he finally refused to give up Luther. You will remember that the Emperor Maximilian was still living, though close to his end, and

Tomb of Frederick the Wise in the Cathedral at Wittenberg: Bronze Casting, 1527.



he sent a letter to the Pope begging him to arrange the dispute. Leo X. appointed a Saxon nobleman named Carl von Militz as his Nuncio, who met Luther at Altenburg, in 1519. The result of this interview was the report of the Nuncio that he would not undertake the

removal of Luther with a force of 10,000 soldiers, and that there were ten friends to him where there was one for the Pope. The Nuncio was a conciliatory, persuasive man, and secured a promise from Luther to keep silence, provided his antagonists did the same.

Such a truce, from its very nature, could not last. Luther's friends were challenged to a discussion, and he was speedily drawn into it. He declared his views with more vigor than ever, and all Germany was in a ferment. The priests and reigning princes were mostly against him, while the middle class and smaller nobles were on his side. The Pope issued a bull, ordering all of Luther's writings to be burned, excommunicating those who should believe in them, and commanding Luther to appear before him at Rome.

Luther's next step was an audacious one, and closed forever the door of reconciliation. On the 10th of December, 1520, accompanied by the professors and students of the university, he kindled a fire outside of one of the gates of Wittenberg, and burned the Papal bull, the books of canonical law and the different writings in defence of the Pope. Such a daring act intensified the quarrel, made Luther many bitter enemies, and at the same time raised up numerous powerful friends.

It was about this time that Charles V., of Spain, Naples, Sicily and the Spanish possessions in America, was elected to the throne of Germany. He also represented in his own person Austria, Burgundy and the Netherlands. Throughout his long reign of thirty-six years he remained a Spaniard, and by his genius raised

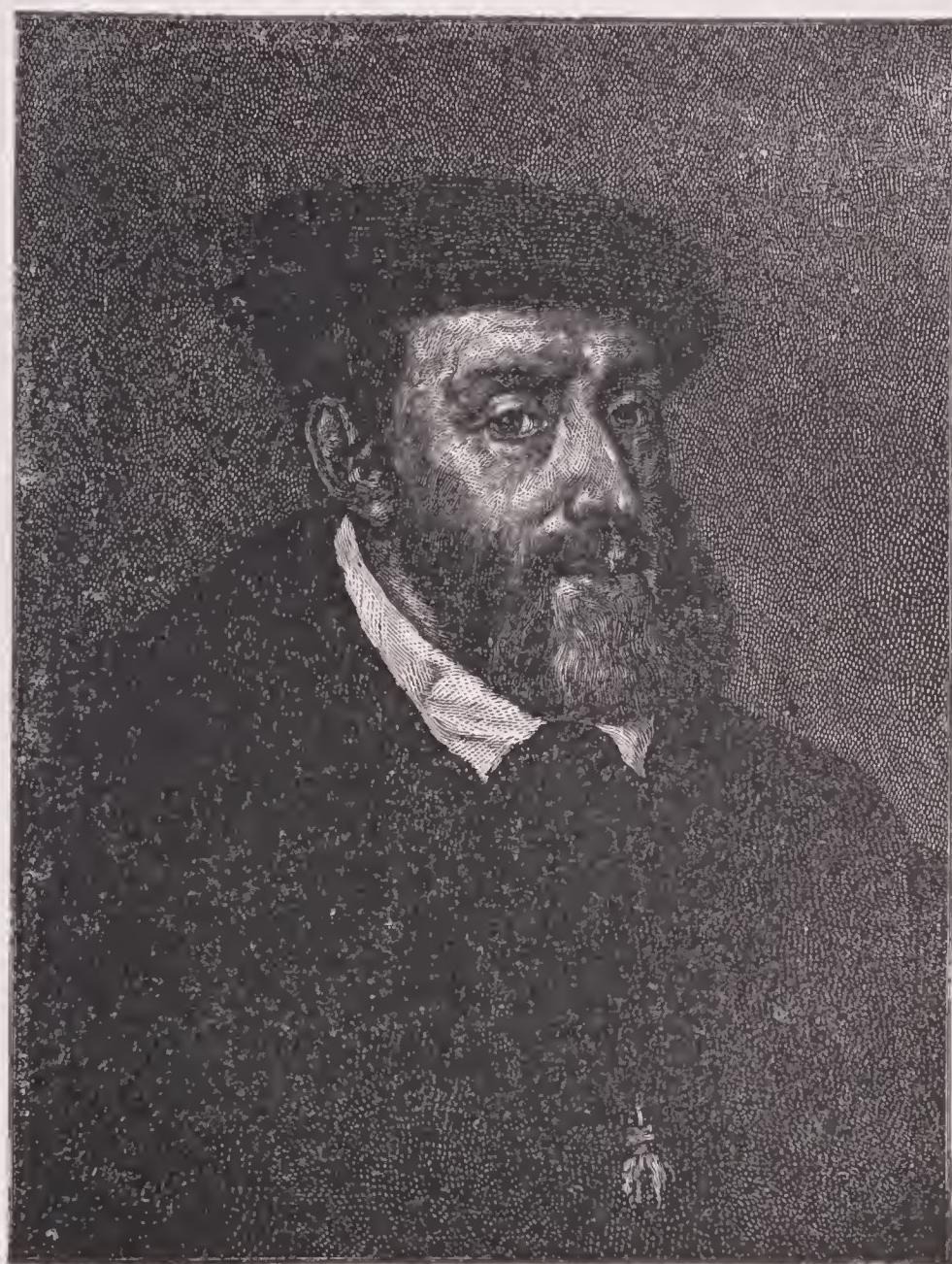
that monarchy to the foremost position among the nations of Europe. Charles was a strict Catholic, but he complied with Luther's request not to be condemned unheard, and invited him to appear before him at Worms, where a new Diet had been called. Luther immediately accepted the invitation, though many of his friends warned him against placing himself in the power of the emperor. On April 17, 1521, he was conducted by the marshal of the empire to the City Hall, where the Diet was in session. There, in the presence of Charles, he acknowledged all his writings, and was called upon to retract them. In an address delivered both in Latin and German, so that all might understand, he made clear the grounds of his belief, and closed with the impressive words:

"Unless, therefore, I should be confuted by the testimony of the Holy Scriptures, and by clear and convincing reasons, I cannot and will not retract, because there is neither wisdom nor certainty in acting against conscience. Here I stand; I cannot act otherwise: God help me. Amen."

Charles V. was indignant, but he gave a commendable example of good faith when urged by many to violate his promise of safe conduct to Luther, which still had twenty-one days to run. He replied: "I do not mean to blush like Sigismund." He added, however, that at the expiration of the period of safe conduct Luther should be prosecuted as a heretic. Luther would have been very rash, therefore, had he remained in Worms. He had many influential friends, who would not permit him to stay, and who feared that, despite the good faith of the emperor,

Luther would be assassinated on his road back to Wittenberg.

He started homeward in an open wagon with one companion. In the depths of the Thuringian forest, he did what seemed a strange thing: he sent his escort in advance, so that he was entirely alone. Suddenly four knights in armor and with closed visors, so that their faces could not be seen, issued from the



Charles V., Emperor of Germany.

wood, one of them leading an extra horse. Luther had no means of defending himself, and it would have been

useless for him to attempt it had he been fully armed. He was placed upon the led horse and the five galloped away.



Peasants at Work in Germany: About 1520.

than ever. Charles V. went to the Diet of Worms, leaving Germany in charge of his younger brother, Ferdinand, while the work of suppressing Luther's doctrines fell mainly to the Archbishops of Mayence and Cologne and the Papal Legate.

Now, it looked very much as if Luther had been killed; but that capture of him by the four knights was a little plot of his devoted friends. Luther sent his escort ahead to have him out of the way, for he expected the knights, each one of whom was ready to risk his life for him. He

Soon all Germany was thrown into tumult by the news that Luther had been murdered in the gloom of the Thuringian forest. The excitement increased as the months passed, and his writings were read with more eagerness

Spain immediately after



School-room of the Sixteenth Century.

The schoolmaster is characterized as unlearned by the clown's cap which he wears.

Martin Luther Before the Diet in the City Hall of Worms.

"Unless, therefore, I should be confuted by the testimony of the Holy Scriptures, and by clear and convincing reasons, I cannot and will not retract, because there is neither wisdom nor certainty in acting against conscience. Here I stand; I cannot act otherwise: God help me. Amen."



was taken to the Wartburg castle, on the crest of a mountain near Eisenbach, where he dressed himself as a knight, wore a helmet, breastplate and sword, allowed his beard to grow, and was known by the name of "Squire George." You may see to-day all the furniture preserved in the room which he occupied, where he worked hard upon a translation of the New Testament into German.



Lady of the Nobility on Horseback, Accompanied by a Halberdier.

Costume picture by Albrecht Dürer.

did not recognize him; but all doubt soon vanished, and he preached with such eloquence and power that the pestilent sect was expelled from the city. The New Testament having been published in German, Luther and Melancthon set about arranging a new and simpler form of service.

The Reformation grew mightily in strength. By the close of 1523 it had been embraced by Saxony, Hesse,

Luther was thus engaged when he learned of the rise of a fanatical sect in Wittenberg called the Anabaptists, in which many of his old friends were taking part. The reformer was greatly disturbed, for he saw only danger in this new movement, and, despite the remonstrance of his friends, he mounted a horse and rode alone into Wittenberg. His appearance was so unexpected and his looks were so changed that many at first refused to believe he was Luther. Even his old friend Melancthon for a time

Brunswick, the cities of Frankfort, Strasburg, Nuremberg, Magdeburg, the Augustine Order of monks, some of the Franciscans and a considerable number of priests; but a grave trouble arose from the Anabaptists, whose preaching caused a revolt in the summer of 1524 among the peasants of Wurtemburg and Baden. Most of their demands were reasonable, and they took it for granted that Luther would support them, but, with his horror of civil war, and his desire to keep the Reformation free of any political movement, he published a pamphlet condemning the uprising, but used what influence he could on behalf of the oppressed ones.

The peasants' war, however, broke out in 1525, and raged with frightful ferocity until the close of the year, when it was repressed. It interfered much with the progress of the Reformation, but Luther's opposition to the revolt retained the friendship of the princes who had been well disposed toward him.

Pope Leo X. died in 1521, and was succeeded by Adrian VI., the last German to wear the Papal crown. He showed a wish to reform many of the corruptions of the church, but he lived only two years, and his successor, Clement VII., persuaded Ferdinand of Austria, the dukes



Scene from the Peasant's Rebellion.

The Murder of a Knight.

of Bavaria and a number of bishops to form a league for the suppressing of Luther's doctrines. A counter league was formed at Torgau in 1526, and the party of the Reformation was so strong at the Diet held in Speyer the same year that no decree could be passed against it. The organization of the Christian church by this time was adopted in Saxony, and soon included all North Germany.

During these stirring times Charles V. was absent from Germany. Fighting against France, he ended the first war by his victory at Pavia in 1525, when he made Francis I. a prisoner. The latter bought his freedom by giving up his claims to Italy, Burgundy and Flanders, but, on his return to France, started another war, this time in conjunction with Pope Clement VII., who was jealous of the emperor's growing power in Italy. The German army marched upon Rome, which was captured and plundered in 1527, though Charles claimed that he did not authorize the action.

In 1525 Luther married Catharine von Bora, a nun who had escaped from a convent, and his enemies accused him of immorality and impiety, but he stoutly defended his action on Scriptural grounds, and spent twenty-one years of domestic happiness. In 1529 the emperor convened a Diet at Spires to procure aid from the German princes in a war against the Turks and to devise means for allaying religious disputes. This assembly ordered that mass should be universally observed throughout the empire. The electors of Saxony and Brandenburg and other princes entered their protest, because of which the reformed party acquired the name of *Protestants*. The

same princes formed a league for their mutual defence against the emperor. In 1530 Melancthon drew up the *Confession of Augsburg*, which was received as the standard of the Protestant faith in Germany. Five years later Luther's translation of the Bible into German was published.

The publication of the German Bible was not the end of Luther's labors, although he was steadily failing under the enormous strain and pressure to which he had long been subjected. Everyone acknowledged his leadership in the great work of the Reformation,

and he was consulted by all classes. So long as he lived he did his utmost to preserve peace among the Protestant princes and between the Protestants and Catholics. He died February 17, 1546; and five days later the remains were buried at Wittenberg, with all the honors which the people and the university could give to them.



Seal of Charles V.

CHAPTER X.

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA (*Continued*). 1438-1745.

THE infamous Duke of Alva, one of the most cruel wretches in history, urged Charles V. to burn the body of Luther and scatter the ashes as those of a heretic, to which the emperor made the manly answer:

“I wage no war against the dead.”

Nevertheless, Charles did all he could to check the spread of Protestantism. By his orders Maurice of Saxony laid siege to Magdeburg and forced its surrender; but he was so disgusted with the oppressive measures of the emperor that he deserted, joined the Protestant cause and formed an alliance with France. Charles received notice of his disaffection just in



German Patricians, about 1550.

time to escape capture. Although suffering from gout, he fled across the Alps in the darkness of night amid a violent storm, many of his courtiers following as best they

could on foot. Maurice arrived in Innspruck a few hours after the flight of the emperor, relieved to find him gone, for, as he declared, he had no convenient cage in which to confine the falcon. The Council of Trent broke up in consternation, its members fleeing in all directions.

In 1553 a Diet was held at which the German princes agreed to the Treaty of Passau, made the year before between Charles and Maurice, which permitted religious freedom to the Protestants. In 1555 the Diet of Augsburg, sanctioned by Charles, confirmed these stipulations, and thus peace was secured to Germany. Failing in health and wearied of the continual strife, Charles V. abdicated the throne in 1556 in favor of his brother and successor, Ferdinand I., and, retiring to the Convent of St. Just in Estramadura, Spain, died in 1558.

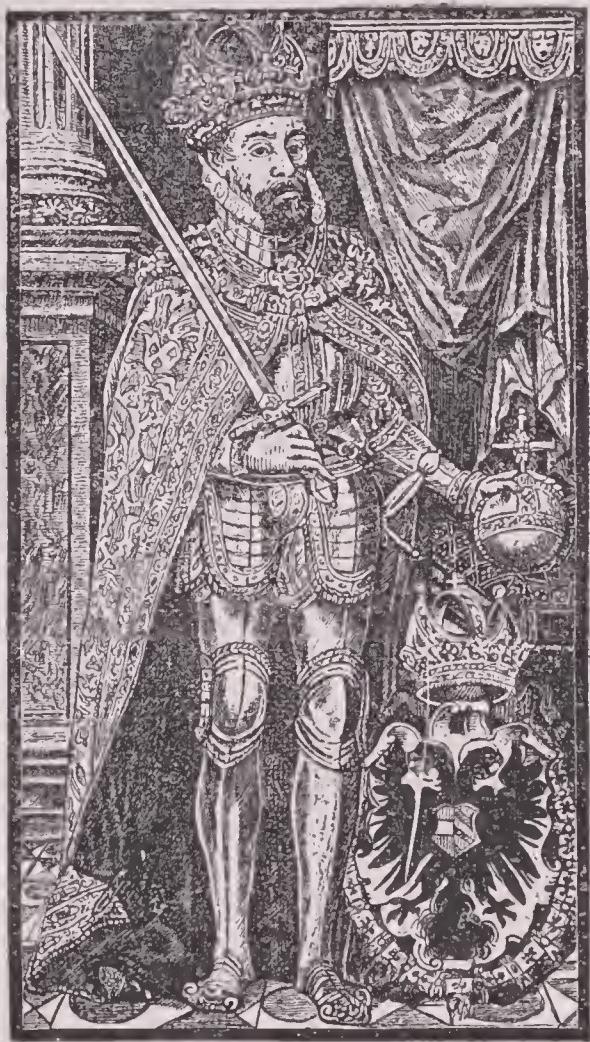
Ferdinand strictly observed all the treaties that had been made, and by working faithfully with the imperial States maintained peace for Germany. Although a rigid



Emperor Ferdinand I.

Catholic, he was tolerant of the Protestant religion, and what fighting he had to do he did against the Turks in Hungary. His son, Maximilian II., who came to the

throne in 1564 and reigned until 1576, was equally tolerant. Indeed, a good many Protestants hoped he would embrace their faith, but he did not think it best to do so, one reason for which was the savage strife between the Lutherans and Calvinists themselves, who were more bitter toward each other than were the Protestants and Catholics. Calvin was the founder of the faith named for him in Switzerland, which spread among the Huguenots in France, in the Netherlands and in Scotland. The emperor did all he could to soothe the quarrels between the different sects, and succeeded so well that it was a sad day for the empire



Emperor Maximilian II. in Imperial
Robes.

when he dropped dead and was succeeded by his son Rudolph II. He and his brother Matthias had been raised at the bigoted court of King Philip of Spain, where the hideous Inquisition held sway. He was gloomy,

A Sitting of the Holy Inquisition.



unsocial, superstitious, and subject to fits of uncontrollable passion. His chief interest lay in the affairs of Austria, his direct inheritance, rather than with those of Germany.

Rudolph took from the Austrian Protestants the right of worship which his father had permitted, and every-

thing he did was with a view of oppressing and persecuting that sect. But Rudolph was so weak and unfitted to reign that the princes of the Austrian house, in 1612, set him aside and placed his brother Matthias on the throne. Rudolph died in the same year.

Matthias reigned from 1612 to 1619. He was old and weak, but did not show any of the fanaticism of his brother. Having no heirs, he was obliged to choose the Archduke Ferdinand as his successor. This emperor is known in history as Ferdinand II.

Emperor Rudolph II. He was an unrelenting foe to the Protestants, as he had proven by stamping out their faith in Styria. The Protestants of Bohemia naturally were alarmed, for they could see no good in store from such a choice. One of their churches having been pulled down by order of the archbishop, a deputation met at



Emperor Rudolph II.



The Imperial Councilors Thrown Out of a Window in the Palace at Prague.

Two of the Imperial councilors having become obnoxious to the Protestant nobles assembled at Prague, were by them thrown out of the window, "according to the ancient Bohemian custom." They fell upon a heap of refuse and were little hurt, although the fall is said to have been eighty feet.

Prague and begged that their grievances might be heard. This was refused, and an appeal to the emperor was brutally treated. Another Protestant assembly met in May, 1618, at the Royal Palace in Prague, to call the governors to account. Two of the imperial councilors made themselves so obnoxious during the discussion that they were flung out of the window.

Behold what a great fire a small matter kindleth! These little affairs gave life to the general discontent

in Bohemia, and really started the Thirty Years' War, the most shameless and terrible in which Germany has ever been involved throughout its whole history. Feeling that all justice was denied them, the Bohemian States organized a provisional government, with Matthias of Thurn as its head.



Emperor Matthias.

They declared that if the promises made to them were not fulfilled they would break with the House of Hapsburg. The old emperor being ill, left all business with the Archduke, who asked for the alliance of Spain and other Catholic countries, while Bohemia attempted to gain to her side Austria, Moravia and Silesia, whose forces were led by the Counts of Thurn, and Ernest of Mansfeld.

War began in August, 1618, when the imperial army

entered Bohemia and was defeated. Matthias dying in the following March, Ferdinand II., as already stated, was elected emperor. The Bohemian States chose Frederick V. Elector of the Palatinate and son-in-law of James I. of England ; but he was unequal to the situation, and, being defeated in a great battle near Prague, in 1620, was obliged to flee to Holland, and was outlawed. The general who conquered him was Tilly, a character of unique interest. He had shown himself a great general while in the Bavarian service, but he was without a spark of pity in his breast. He is pictured by the writer, Bayard Taylor, as a small, lean man, with a face almost comical in its ugliness. His nose was like a parrot's beak, his forehead seamed with deep wrinkles, his eyes sunk in their sockets, and his cheek-bones projecting. He usually wore a dress of green satin, with a cocked hat and long red feather, and rode a small, mean-looking gray horse.

No pen can describe the misery and violence that followed. The Bohemian leaders were imprisoned and executed, their property confiscated, all Bohemia, Silesia and Moravia overrun, the churches closed or given over to the



The Emperor Ferdinand II.

Catholics, and the University of Prague presented to the Jesuits, so that it is said that in 1627 fully 36,000 families, rather than surrender their faith, left Salzburg and became wanderers.

The war, however, did not end, a new expedition beginning on the Rhine in defence of the outlawed elector, Frederick. Tilly was defeated in 1622, but the victorious allies imprudently parted company too soon, and Tilly

after hearing mass, fell upon them at Wimpfen and Höchst and routed both armies. Subduing the whole of the Palatinate, the extirpation of the Protestants was carried on with as much merciless ferocity as elsewhere.

The scene of the war shifted to the North,

Pillaging and Destruction of a Village During the "Thirty Years' War."

whither Tilly hastened with his army, and, driving Prince Christian and his troops into Holland, he occupied all Lower Saxony and Westphalia. England, Holland and Denmark formed a league in 1625 to drive Tilly out of Lower Saxony and to check the progress of the Imperial progress northward. In his extremity, the emperor accepted the offer of the enormously wealthy Albert, of Waldstein, better known as Wallenstein, who had won a high reputation as a military leader, and whose conscience never troubled him. He was very superstitious, fond of



Tilly in the Church Before the Battle of Wimpfen.

Tilly was one of the generals who committed frightful devastations during the Thirty-Years' War, pursuing the Protestants with merciless ferocity in the service of the houses of Austria and Bavaria. After winning thirty-six battles Tilly lost the field of Breitenfeld to Gustavus Adolphus.



astrology, and believed that a great destiny awaited him. He was tall and gaunt, was never seen to smile, his eyes were small and fiery and his complexion yellow. His

offer to raise an army of 50,000 men for Ferdinand II. was joyfully accepted.

Wallenstein marched into Lower Saxony in the autumn of 1625, won a victory at Dessau, and followed the defeated forces into Hungary, where they went to pieces. Meanwhile, the King of Denmark had been defeated by Tilly, who, uniting with Wallenstein, marched into Holstein. Denmark was laid waste, and Wallenstein occupying Pomerania, became ruler of the Baltic, all



Wallenstein.

the towns of Pomerania excepting Stralsund having opened their gates to the Imperial troops.

The Imperial cause had now achieved such triumphs in every quarter that, in 1629, the emperor issued his *Edict of Restitution*, by which all confiscated church property was restored to the Catholics, all sees and bishoprics filled by their clergy, Calvinism rigorously excluded and

Protestantism greatly checked. Wallenstein's soldiers were so intolerable in their treatment of Catholics, as well as Protestants, that the princes secured his recall by the emperor, who made Tilly commander-in-chief of the Imperial armies.

When utter ruin threatened the German Protestants, who could furnish no capable leader, hope appeared in the person of the illustrious Gustavus Adolphus, of Sweden, who, on the 4th of July, 1630, landed on the coast of Pomerania with an army of 15,000 men. He had succeeded to the throne of Sweden in 1611, at the age of seventeen, and had proven himself a magnificent military leader by driving the Russians from the Baltic and by fighting for several years against King Sigismund of Poland. He was an earnest Protestant, burning with zeal to defend the almost hopeless cause in Germany.

Although the Protestant princes were humbled to the dust, they refused to unite under him. Nothing could have been meaner or more cowardly, for while Gustavus Adolphus had come into Germany to aid the downtrodden people, he found that the whole work was left to him. But with dauntless faith he began the almost impossible task. By the end of the year he relieved Pomerania of the Imperial troops and stormed and captured Frankfurt-on-the-Oder. At that time Magdeburg, the only German city which had resisted the *Edict of Restitution*, was besieged by Tilly and Pappenheim. In order to relieve the siege, Gustavus asked permission of the Elector of Saxony to pass through his territory, and, incredible as it may seem, such permission was refused.

Magdeburg was defended for more than a month by a garrison of about 2,000 soldiers and 5,000 armed citizens against an army of 30,000 trained soldiers. Then, in May, 1631, it was stormed and given over to the merciless savagery of the troops. The city went down in blood and flame; 30,000 of the people were put to the sword, and

Tilly, writing to his emperor, said he was "sincerely sorry" that the ladies of the Imperial family could not have been present as spectators.

At last the elector joined forces with Gustavus, and in the battle of Breitenfeld, near Leipzig, Tilly was routed and a new government was established in South Germany. By the following year Tilly had raised a new army and taken Bamberg, but fell back upon the approach of the Swedish king, who, however, followed him up, and, in 1632, compelled him to fight.

Not only were the Imperial troops defeated, but Tilly was mortally wounded, and the emperor was left without an experienced commander. Gustavus Adolphus occupied Augsburg and marched to Munich (*mu'nik*), hailed everywhere as the deliverer of the country.

Wallenstein was now recalled to the command, and drove the Saxons out of Bohemia. He then turned to Nuremberg, where Gustavus Adolphus had intrenched his army before the town. The two armies lay in sight of each



Gustavus Adolphus.



Tilly Demands the Surrender of Magdeburg.

Magdeburg was the chief of the Protestant cities, and therefore under the ban of the Emperor Ferdinand II. After its fall and sack Tilly wrote to his Imperial master that no such victory had been achieved since the fall of Troy and Jerusalem. From that day Tilly's fame and fortune declined.

other for more than two months, when Gustavus broke camp and moved south. Wallenstein followed into Saxony, where he took Leipzig, and united his forces with the Bavarian general, Pappenheim. Fearing that the elector, who had not always stood firm, might be forced to join the emperor, Gustavus brought Wallenstein to battle in November, 1632.

The king went into the fight at the head of his regiment, and fell mortally wounded almost at the first fire. His followers attacked the enemy with so much fury that Wallenstein was forced back and defeated. He retired to Bohemia, and for a long time paid no heed to the pressing calls of the emperor that he should take the field. In truth, he was plotting to betray the Imperial cause, and, the facts being made known to the emperor, he issued a secret order to seize Wallenstein and three of his guilty companions, dead or alive.

In the latter part of February, 1634, Wallenstein reached the town of Eger, near the Bohemian frontier. He was on his way to carry out his treasonable designs, when an Irish officer and two Scotch ones, no doubt in obedience to instructions from Vienna, conspired to murder him. It is said that Wallenstein had been warned of his impending fate by the astrologer Seni. Three friends of Wallenstein went to a banquet in the evening at the citadel, but he was ill and remained in his quarters in the burgomaster's house. At a signal, the lights were put out, dragoons entered the banquet hall and killed the three comrades of Wallenstein. Then they went to the burgomaster's house, under the pretence of bearing important



Death of King Gustavus Adolphus at Lützen.

despatches, cut down Wallenstein's servant and entered the room where he lay. Seeing that the end had come, Wallenstein received the death-blow in silence and without resistance.

Ferdinand, the emperor's son, now became commander-in-chief, and, with the aid of General Gallas, routed the Protestant forces at Nordlingen. Suabia and Franconia were overrun, Saxony fell away from the Swedish alliance, and Sweden made a new treaty with France, by which it was to receive subsidies and an army, while France was to be given Alsace.



Emperor Ferdinand III.

In these intrigues the masterly brain of Cardinal Richelieu (*rē'she-loo*, or *reesh'le-uh*) was at work, as it had been in the displacement of Wallenstein. Richelieu was on the side of the Protestants, and brought about the alliance of France, Sweden and Holland and the Protestant States of Germany against his implacable foe, the House of Austria. It was due to the diplomacy of Richelieu and the energetic military movements that from this time forward the Imperial cause gradually declined.

Ferdinand II. died in 1637 and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand III. The dreadful war went on for six years after the death of Richelieu, in 1642. Finally peace was signed at Münster in 1648, and the disgraceful Thirty Years' War came to an end. This treaty established the

religious independence of the Protestant States, made Holland and Switzerland free and robbed the German empire of most of its ancient splendor and power.

CHAPTER XI.

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA (*Continued*). 1438-1745.

NEVER was there a more woful example of the desolation and horror of war than that of Germany at the end of the struggle which had raged for thirty years. It may be truthfully said that everything was destroyed—commerce, arts, culture and the prosperity brought by the Reformation. Back and forth the armies had wrestled, sacking, burning, pillaging and killing. Hundreds of once flourishing villages and towns were smoking ashes. No green thing was left growing, and for years the trampled fields lay untilled, after having been fertilized by the blood and bones of murdered men, because there was no seed to sow. Over this awful desolation you could walk for ten, fifteen or twenty miles without meeting horse, cow or living person. The wolves fattened on the ghastly corpses, and boldly invaded the hovels where the miserable widows and orphans huddled together. Pestilence and famine trod on the heels of the armed forces, and the victors were as lawless and wild as the conquered.

Almost every man who survived became a robber, who did not hesitate to kill for the sake of plunder. The blight of God seemed to rest on the land.

But the people began to rally, and by and by timidly ventured to take up the duties of life. Prosperity and happiness would come again in due time if men would cease killing one another in the name of Him whose chief doctrine was the golden rule of love and charity.

The German empire was in fragments, the disconnected States tottering along, each in its own way, without thought or care for the others. All hope of nationality was gone for the time, and the skies were like a pall. France had grown to be the most powerful nation in Europe, and her greedy eyes turned longingly upon the prostrate people, where she saw a chance of stealing territory. She coveted possession of the whole left bank of the Rhine from Basle to its estuaries. You will remember that Louis XIV. was King of France, and he had not the first glimmer of a conscience. He welcomed the calamity of any other country, because it promised to bring gain to his own.

Ferdinand III. died in 1657, and the following year the electors chose Leopold I., who ruled until 1705. He was compelled to promise never to help any enemy of France or the Spaniards in Belgium. Louis XIV. was so powerful that there were only two princes in Europe with enough courage to oppose him. One of these was William of Orange, who, on the death of James II., became King of England, and the other was the great elector, Frederick William of Brandenburg, who clearly read the intentions of the base monarch of France.



R. Bon

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Frederick William of Brandenburg, The Great Elector.

I have just told you that Germany was broken up into a large number of petty States, all independent of one another. One of these was the Electorate of Brandenburg, which lay alongside of another small territory known as the Duchy of Prussia, which was added to Brandenburg. Affairs were managed so well that the enlarged electorate greatly prospered. Toward the close of the seventeenth century, the elector, Frederick III., made a bargain with the emperor in the War of the Spanish Succession, as it was called, that he would give him help, provided he should be made King of Prussia. Now, remember, therefore, that in 1701 Frederick III., the last elector of Brandenburg, became Frederick I., the first King of Prussia.

Frederick William, second King of Prussia, came to the throne in 1713, and reigned until 1740. He was half-savage, grim, stern and an absolute tyrant, but his whole heart was set on making Prussia a leading power among nations. He set to work drilling and disciplining troops until he had moulded them into a magnificent army. His son, afterward known as Frederick the Great, came to the throne in 1740 and ruled until 1786.

I make these few statements in advance, because it is necessary you should bear them in mind in order to understand events in Germany which I must now relate. The momentous part played by Prussia will be told later on.

Going back to 1672, Louis XIV. of France entered Holland and occupied the German Duchy of Lorraine without the least regard to the rights of the German empire. The elector formed an alliance with Holland and marched

to the Rhine, where an Austrian army was to meet him; but Austria had been forbidden to carry out her agreement by France, and remained neutral. This compelled Frederick William to enter into the Vossem Treaty of Neutrality with France, receiving back his Cleve possessions, which France had occupied.

Since France was devastating the Rhenish borders, the emperor joined Holland and Spain, and the empire declared war against France. Louis seized the eleven imperial towns over which he had simple jurisdiction, and ordered his general, Turenne (*tureén*), to lay waste the Palatinate. The elector advanced into Alsace, but he as well as his Dutch allies operating singly were defeated. In order to draw off his enemy from the Rhine, Louis induced Sweden to invade Brandenburg. The elector marched into South Germany, secured reinforcements, and, rapidly marching north, attacked the Swedish army at Fehrbellin, in June, 1675, and, although his force was much the smaller, he won a brilliant and decisive victory. The Swedes retreated, and the elector entered into an alliance with Denmark and Brunswick to drive the Swedes out of Germany. The elector was so successful that at the end of three years he had fully recovered Pomerania.

When matters were in this promising shape for Germany, Holland suddenly made peace with France, by the terms of which the emperor ceded Freiburg (*fri-*) to the French, and consented that East Pomerania should be restored to Sweden. The outraged elector refused to agree to this, whereupon the French immediately occupied and laid waste his territory and threatened Magdeburg. De-

serted by his allies, the elector was forced to consent to the humiliating terms.

Louis XIV. had been so successful that he determined to go further. He occupied 600 towns and villages of the German empire, which he claimed had originally belonged to France. Then he obtained possession by treachery of Strasburg, reduced it to a provincial French city, and it was lost to Germany for two hundred years. Feeling that no hope remained, the elector of Brandenburg consented to a twenty years' truce in 1684, in which the territories, including Strasburg and Luxemburg, were given up to France. The elector died in 1688.

Giving rein to his towering ambition, the French king incited the Turks to advance upon Austria from the east. The emperor was virtually helpless, and 200,000 Turks besieged Vienna. It surely would have fallen had not John Sobieski, King of Poland, at the end of two months, attacked and repulsed the Turks. The imperialist army followed up its advantage, and in the course of a few years gained a number of victories over the Turks.

In these battles Prince Eugene of Savoy, "Der edle Ritter," greatly distinguished himself. He was a born soldier, and, being refused the command of a regiment in the French army, he volunteered in the service of the emperor against the Turks. His bravery and skill were so conspicuous that he was given the command of a regiment of dragoons, and was afterward placed at the head of the army of Hungary. Louis XIV. was so pleased with his abilities that he offered him a marshal's staff, a pension and the government of Champagne, which offer was scorn-



The Great Elector Defeats the Swedes in the Battle of Fehrbellin.

fully refused. We shall soon hear more of Prince Eugene. It had become so plain that the King of France meant to make all the European States tributary to his crown that William of Orange urged an alliance against him. Such an alliance was formed in 1686, and included Holland, Brandenburg, Sweden, Spain, the emperor and some of the princes of the empire, the alliance being known as the Augsburg League. William becoming King of England two years later, that country also joined the alliance.

Louis sent two armies into the Palatinate, with orders to burn and destroy without mercy. The brutal command was carried out by Melac with a savagery that has never been surpassed. The vines were pulled up by the roots and destroyed; the fruit-trees were cut down, the villages burned, and, in addition to the multitudes killed, 400,000 people were made beggars. The castle of Heidelberg, one of the finest monuments in Europe of the Middle Ages, was blown up with gunpowder; the people of Manheim were compelled to pull down their own fortifications, after which the city was burned; Speyer, with its splendid cathedral, was leveled to the ground, and the coffins of the buried emperors were dug up and plundered. To complete the horrible scene, it should be added that while this frightful devastation was going on most of the German princes were aping the fashions of the corrupt French court and trying to unlearn their own language, as if they were ashamed of it! Finally the treaty of Ryswick (*riz'wik*) was made in 1697, and by its terms Germany was compelled to leave Alsace and Strasburg in the hands of the French.

In the last year of the century Charles II. of Spain

died without heirs, and, of course, there had to be another war, or rather series of them, which are known as the *Wars of the Spanish Succession*, and which lasted for thirteen years. The emperor demanded the throne for his second son Charles, and Louis XIV. made a similar demand for his grandson, Philip of Anjou, the territory in dispute being Spain, Belgium, Milan, Naples, Sicily and the Spanish colonies in America.

Louis XIV. not only claimed the throne for his grandson, but proceeded to take possession of it. The emperor was equally pugnacious, and was joined by England and Holland, who thought it high time that a curb was put on the French king's ambition. Most of the German princes, with Brandenburg at the head, followed the example thus set. The elector of Bavaria and the Archbishop of Cologne sided with the French, while Portugal joined the Austrian alliance. So it came about that one-half of Europe was arrayed against the other half on account of the dispute over the Spanish succession.

The allies had an overwhelming advantage, because their armies were led by the Duke of Marlborough, who never lost a battle, and by the brilliant Prince Eugene, of Savoy. The war lasted from 1701 to 1714, and was carried on in Spain, Italy, Belgium and Germany. Naturally, most of the Spanish provinces fought for Philip, and only a few for the Archduke Charles, who went personally to Spain, where a bloody civil war followed.

In Italy, Prince Eugene crossed the Alps and defeated the French army; Ludwig of Baden, with the Imperial army, occupied the Upper Rhine, while the Duke of Marl-

borough, commanding the English, Dutch and German allies, entered the Netherlands, sent the Archbishop of Cologne scurrying before him and seized the electorate.

Prince Eugene saw that the issue of the war depended upon the subjection of Bavaria, and he asked the Duke of Marlborough to help him to destroy the French-Bavarian army at one blow. The two commanders joined forces, and at Blenheim, in 1704, they effected this work with absolute success. What was left of the enemy retreated with the elector across the Rhine, Bavaria was lost and France received the greatest defeat it had suffered in two centuries.

The Imperial army occupied Bavaria, and the emperor, dying in 1705, was succeeded by his son, Joseph I., who reigned until 1711. He was a good ruler, tolerant in religious matters and energetic. Meanwhile Marlborough had advanced from Bavaria into the Netherlands, where he manœuvred so as to induce the French to attack him at Ramillies, being almost the exact spot upon which the famous battle of Waterloo was fought more than a hundred years later. Events went exactly as Marlborough had planned. His position was strongly defended by a morass and some ditches filled with water, so that the enemy could not attack the weaker and more exposed points, while he could hurl his whole force upon any part of their line. Through his superior generalship, Marlborough won a complete victory, the French losing more than 20,000 men and eighty standards, including the drums and colors of the Royal Guard itself. The principal towns of Flanders and Brabant submitted, and the Archduke Charles was proclaimed as Charles III.



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The Emperor Joseph I.

Showing the Spanish Court Dress and Fashion of the Times.

Marching into Italy, Prince Eugene attacked the Duke of Orleans, who was besieging Turin with an army of 80,000 men, and utterly overthrew him, compelling Milan to submit and driving the French out of the country. Then Eugene sent a force against Naples, Sardinia and Sicily, the last being easily captured with the help of the British fleet. The Pope, who hitherto had sided with France, now acknowledged Charles of Hapsburg as King of Spain.

By this time Louis XIV. concluded that there was not much chance for his grandson, and it would be a good idea to propose peace to the allies; but the latter replied that his terms were not satisfactory, and they kept up the war, Prince Eugene uniting forces with the Duke of Marlborough in the Netherlands. Together they gained the victory of Oudenarde in 1708, by which Brabant and Flanders were secured. Then the French king notified his enemies that he would rest satisfied with Naples and Sicily, but the allies again refused. The entire Spanish monarchy for Charles III., the restoration of Alsace and Strasburg and the expulsion of the king's grandson, were the three demands of the allies. Louis was willing to grant the first two, but he drew the line at driving his descendant out of Spain, managed to raise another army, and the war went merrily on, with the French routed at Malplaquet (*mal-plah'ka*) in 1709 by the duke and the prince. Then Louis agreed to give back all the territory, only retaining Sicily for his grandson. Prince Eugene urged that this offer be accepted, but Austria refused her consent.



Marlborough's Charge at Ramillies: "Wheel into line!"

The victory at Ramillies was won by the skilful manoeuvres of Marlborough and by his personal bravery on the field. The French line was sent reeling back by repeated cavalry charges, in one of which Marlborough, himself, narrowly escaped capture.

At this critical juncture the Duchess of Marlborough and Queen Anne of England quarreled, and the duke was recalled, while in Germany the emperor suddenly died, without heirs. His brother, Charles VI., succeeded to the throne, and reigned from 1711 to 1740. The allies did not care to promote the supremacy of the Hapsburg line, and signed the Peace of Utrecht (*yoo'treckt*) with England and France. The emperor continued the war some time longer, but accepted the conditions of peace in 1714.

By the terms of this treaty Philip received Spain and Spanish America, but renounced all claim to the French throne; the emperor received Belgium, Naples, Milan and Sardinia, and Prussia was accorded the formal acknowledgment of its monarchy. Gibraltar had been captured by the English in 1704, and they retained it, as well as a number of important colonies in America. France really had not lost much of her territory, but her power and prestige were injured, and she was burdened with a mountainous debt.

CHAPTER XII.

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA (*Concluded*). 1438–1745. RISE AND PROGRESS OF PRUSSIA. 1713–1763.

I HAVE already told you something about the first three kings of Prussia, which was destined to play a most important part in the affairs of Europe. You will remember that the second was Frederick William I., who reigned from 1713 to 1740, and I am sure you have not forgotten what a grim old tyrant he was. With little education himself, he felt its importance, and founded several hundred elementary schools in his country. He allowed 20,000 Protestant Salzburgers to settle there, and they proved a valuable addition. He spent large sums of money on his army, and his fondness for very tall soldiers led him to pay them large prices and to obtain the giants wherever he could in Europe.

Soon after he came to the throne he agreed to acknowledge what is termed the “Pragmatic Sanction,” by which Maria Theresa, only daughter of Charles VI., was to be allowed to inherit all the Austrian territories on her father’s death. This transfer from the male to the female line was the earnest wish of the king, and he was successful in obtaining the concert of the other powers.

The Prussian king had a stormy time with his son, who was bright and well educated, and with wholly different tastes from his. The old king disliked what he looked

upon as the effeminate inclinations of his heir, while the latter detested the endless drill and monotonous service to which he was subjected. His discontent increased, until he made an attempt to run away, but was caught and brought back. The king in a towering rage ordered him to be put on trial as a deserter, expecting he would be shot; but he was gently reminded that the law would not permit a court to sentence a member of the royal family. Baffled in this direction, the king had the companion of his son beheaded before his window, that it might serve as a warning to him against disobedience.

Friedrich then prayed for the pardon of his father and received it, but



The Tobacco College of Frederick William I.
Where Young Frederick (The Great) was
Compelled to be Present by his Tyrannical
Father.

he did not escape punishment. He was imprisoned for a year and compelled to work as a clerk in the war department, where the knowledge he gained proved of great value to him afterward. Most of the time he was obliged to live on bread and water. But the young man was made of the right stuff, and was destined to become one of the greatest generals and statesmen whose names figure in history.



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The Empress Maria Theresa of Austria.

A woman of majestic figure and undaunted spirit, combining feminine tact with masculine energy; she raised Austria from a wretched condition to a position of assured power.

When Frederick's freedom was restored to him, he and his grim old father became reconciled, and the latter was pleased when his son, instead of espousing the daughter of George II. of England, married the Princess of Brunswick-Bevern. The son was presented with a fine castle, where he spent most of his time in study and correspondence. The king died in 1740, leaving him a well regulated government with a large revenue, a fine army of 80,000 men, and more than \$6,000,000 in the public treasury.

Frederick II. determined to claim from the Empress of Austria the four Silesian Duchies which had been lost to Brandenburg through the Thirty Years' War. He asked her for them, promising in return his help against Bavaria. The empress stamped her foot and said "No!" But Frederick half expected that answer, and, although he had no moral or legal right for his action, he marched into Silesia and opened the First Silesian War (1740-1742). He met with success from the first, defeating the imperial army at Mollwitz in April, 1741, and was welcomed by the inhabitants as a deliverer.

It so happened that the elector of Bavaria had also claimed the Austrian heritage, and being supported by France, Spain and Saxony, the Austrian War of Succession began. Invading Austria, the elector subdued Bohemia, and was crowned as Emperor Charles VII. in 1742 at Frankfurt. He held that station until 1745, and was the last of the line of the house of Austria.

Frederick won another victory at Hohenfriedberg, in June, 1745, over the United Imperial and Saxon forces,



Capture of the Austrians by Frederick the Great at Hohenfriedberg.

This victory in the Second Silesian War added to the territory of Prussia, and gave Frederick the reputation of being one of the first military commanders of the day.

and Maria Theresa, finding herself threatened by other foes, made peace by granting his demand; all of Silesia and the county of Glatz were made over to Frederick. Hostilities broke out again in 1744, but nothing resulted from the Second Silesian War. Eight years of peace followed, during which Frederick devoted his energies to the advancement of Prussia, which became prosperous and grew in strength and importance.

It is a sad pity that this peace could not have continued, for, as I have just said, the Prussian king put it to the best use. He gave his whole attention to affairs of state, traveling about the country, so as to gain a personal knowledge of the condition and needs of his people. His favorite home was Sansouci, in Potsdam, where his associates were the best educated and most brilliant men of his time. Voltaire, the famous French wit and scholar, spent a long time with the king, who held him in high esteem. Great attention was given to the arts, and among the many important buildings erected by Frederick was the fine opera house in Berlin.

But this happy state of affairs could not continue, for in 1756 the Seven Years' War, the greatest struggle of all, broke out. Although Frederick was the first to draw the sword, his act was one of self-defence, and he is not blamable. This was the cause: Austria made a secret treaty with France, and another with Russia, Poland, Sweden and Saxony, by which it was agreed to divide Prussia among them. Therefore, if Frederick had not made war, his kingdom would have been swallowed up by those greedy knaves. England promised to help Prussia, but she had not much heart in the work.

Frederick learned of this fearful alliance against him, and you may be sure he did not rest idle. With an army of 70,000 he invaded Saxony, captured Dresden, and defeated the Austrians at Lowositz. In Dresden he seized the State papers, and found in them the whole story of the abominable plot that had been formed against him. These papers he published, that all the world might know the just cause he had for going to war.

The second campaign, opening in 1757 with the invasion of Bohemia by Frederick, was the greatest of all. He was at the head of an army of 100,000 men, and defeated Prince Charles of Lorraine near Prague. Leaving the siege of Prague, he turned with an insufficient force to attack the enemy at Kolin, but suffered defeat, was obliged to abandon Prague and withdraw into Silesia. Then followed a thunder-burst of misfortunes. The Russians had gained a victory on the eastern frontier, the Swedes in Pomerania advanced upon Berlin, and the English were driven disgracefully out of Hanover by the French, who were pressing into Saxony.

Not only were the English routed, but their commander, the Duke of Cumberland, made a treaty with France, disbanded his army and gave up North Germany to that country. What earthly hope remained to Frederick? Nearly all the great powers were arrayed against him, and it looked as if nothing could prevent the vast armies from crushing his weak force. Dauntless as was the spirit of the great man, it seemed idle for him to continue. He had often said he would never survive the ruin of his country, and, believing all was lost, he decided to

commit suicide. He always carried a phial of deadly poison, so as to be ready for the dreadful act. It is said that he had drawn this phial forth with the intention of swallowing its contents, when one of his officers struck down his hand. Then the spirits of Frederick seemed to rally, and he addressed himself to the herculean task before him.

A second French army was approaching Thuringia, and on the way was joined by the Imperial army. To keep the French out of Saxony, Frederick advanced with only a part of his force and attacked the enemy at the village of Rossbach, near the Saale. He had only 22,000 men, while the foe numbered 60,000.

This battle was so singular that I must tell you about it. The French did not believe Frederick would dare make a stand, and they set to work to surround him completely, so as to prevent his escape. By making him prisoner, of course, the war would be ended, and that was what they were thinking of. While the French were thus employed not a Prussian soldier fired a shot. They busied themselves with cooking and eating their meals, Frederick himself joining his generals and staff with as much indifference as if there were not a foe within a hundred miles.

But you need not be told that every Prussian was on the alert. Early in the afternoon Frederick gave the word. As if by magic, all the tents were struck, the army drawn up, and the artillery opened its tremendous fire. Then the dashing General Seidlitz, at the head of his gallant cavalry, struck the lines like a cyclone. The French had never encountered such bewildering rapidity of action.



General Seidlitz Pursuing the French at the Battle of Rossbach.

At Rossbach the French broke and fled before the furious onslaught of the Prussian cavalry, for whom the day was more like a hunt than a battle.

which made it impossible to form in line. The cavalry swept back and forth, fighting like lions. In the brief space of half an hour the French were completely routed and overthrown. The majority fled in a wild, headlong panic, but the Prussians took 7,000 prisoners, including nine generals and three hundred and twenty officers of every rank, besides twenty-two standards and sixty-three pieces of cannon. Of the Prussians only 165 were killed and 350 wounded. The credit for this wonderful victory belonged to Frederick, who had the genius to plan and act quickly in a desperate emergency. His army was in a splendid state of discipline, but much of the glory, as he himself insisted, was due to the rapid and resistless courage of General Seidlitz.

I have spoken of the genius of Frederick for meeting desperate emergencies, and I must here relate an interesting anecdote. After the victory of Rossbach he hurried to Silesia, where the Austrians had gained several successes. On the 5th of December he attacked them on the immense plain near Leuthen, where, although he had only 30,000 men opposed to 80,000, he won one of the most wonderful victories ever known. His success was due wholly to his marvellous generalship. Thousands of the Austrians were slain and 21,000 taken prisoners, besides one hundred and thirty cannon and three thousand ammunition and other wagons.

After the battle Frederick rode out with a few companions to the palace of Lissa, near at hand. As he entered he found the building full of Austrian officers, who could have made him prisoner without the least difficulty.



Frederick the Great at the Palace of Lissa: "Bon Soir, Messieurs."

After the victory of Leuthen, the whole Prussian army sang a hymn of thanksgiving on the battlefield at night; and the same evening Frederick narrowly, and by great presence of mind, escaped capture at Lissa.

They gathered on the stairs with burning lights to meet him, and, without showing the least alarm or excitement, Frederick bowed to them, with the greeting, "Bon Soir, Messieurs! I hardly suppose you expected to see me here!" They parted to allow him to pass between their ranks, and bowed in return, too bewildered to understand the golden opportunity that was theirs. Before their senses returned a squadron of Prussian hussars galloped up and made them all prisoners.

These astonishing victories gave Silesia back to Frederick, while everywhere he was hailed as one of the greatest military geniuses that ever lived. The city of London was illuminated in his honor, and the enthusiastic English Parliament voted him \$3,500,000 a year, which was discontinued some time later.

Throughout 1758 the general result of the campaign was favorable to the Prussians, who still held Silesia, while the French had been driven out of Germany, but the following year brought disaster. Frederick suffered a fearful defeat by the Russians at Kunersdorf in Brandenburg, Dresden was captured and held by the Austrians, and a Prussian army, numbering 20,000, was hemmed in by Austrians among the passes of Bohemia and compelled to surrender.

Thus the year 1760 opened with the brave Frederick at bay before 200,000 bayonets, which goaded him from all sides. In his desperation he made a dash at Torgau, and by winning a victory saved his monarchy from annihilation; but it looked as if his doom was postponed for only a brief time, and once more he fondled the phial of

poison, almost certain that the hour had now come for him to end it all.

But now took place a strange thing. Rather, it was not strange of itself, but its results were remarkable. In January, 1762, Elizabeth of Russia, Frederick's implacable enemy, died, and Peter III., his warm admirer and friend, came to the throne, and not only made peace with Frederick, but sent an army to help him. Sweden did the same. In 1763 England, France and Spain concluded a treaty of peace, by which, as you will remember, France lost all her possessions in America. This left Austria and Prussia confronting each other alone, and they also made peace. Thus the Seven Years' War came to an end. The German territory was substantially as before, while Prussia retained Silesia.

CHAPTER XIII.

GROWTH OF PRUSSIA. 1763-1791.

“FREDERICK the Great” was the title now applied to the King of Prussia throughout Europe, and you will admit that he deserved the honor. He had raised his country to the rank of one of the “Five Great Powers,” the others being England, France, Austria and Russia. The generalship displayed by him in his contest with the tremendous armies of his enemies was

never surpassed, and, what is no less to his credit, he proved himself as great in peace as in war.

Prussia had been wasted and weakened by the terrible struggle, and he now set to work to bring back its prosperity. All the cavalry and artillery horses that could be spared were distributed among the farmers, and his granaries were opened and seed-corn given to the impoverished husbandmen. Not only were the poor relieved from paying taxes, but, when necessary, they were helped ; enormous waste tracts of land were brought under cultivation ; 50,000 new colonists were induced to settle in his dominions, and 500 villages were founded. He did not forget to increase at the same time the strength of his army and to preserve its discipline, for none knew better than he that there is no such thing as chivalry among nations, and that the surest way to invite invasion and destruction is to show yourself unable to prevent it. He used the strictest economy, but of necessity taxes were heavy upon those who were able to pay ; but who could complain when the king himself gave five-sixths of his income toward bearing the burden ?

Frederick was tolerant in religious matters, and Protestants and Catholics received the same treatment. Everybody liked him, for they knew he was impartial and would see that equal justice was shown to all. There is a story that when he found an old windmill stood in the way of his new park at Sansouci he went to the owner and offered him a liberal price for it. The miller shook his head ; he didn't wish to sell. The king offered him a greater sum, and promised to build the owner a larger and better wind-



Frederick the Great of Prussia: "Unser Fritz."

Frederick was an able administrator, and carried on his wars without incurring any debts. He laid the foundation of Prussia's greatness.

mill. But he still shook his head. "My grandfather built this mill," the miller said; "I inherited it from my father, and my children shall inherit it from me."

"Don't you know," asked the king, growing impatient, "that, if I chose, I could take it from you without paying anything?"

The miller chuckled.

"You might have done so *once*, but the new law courts at Berlin won't let you do it *now*."

Nothing could have pleased Frederick more than this compliment to the justice of the law. He dismissed the miller graciously, and that very mill is standing to-day, a monument of the king's justice.

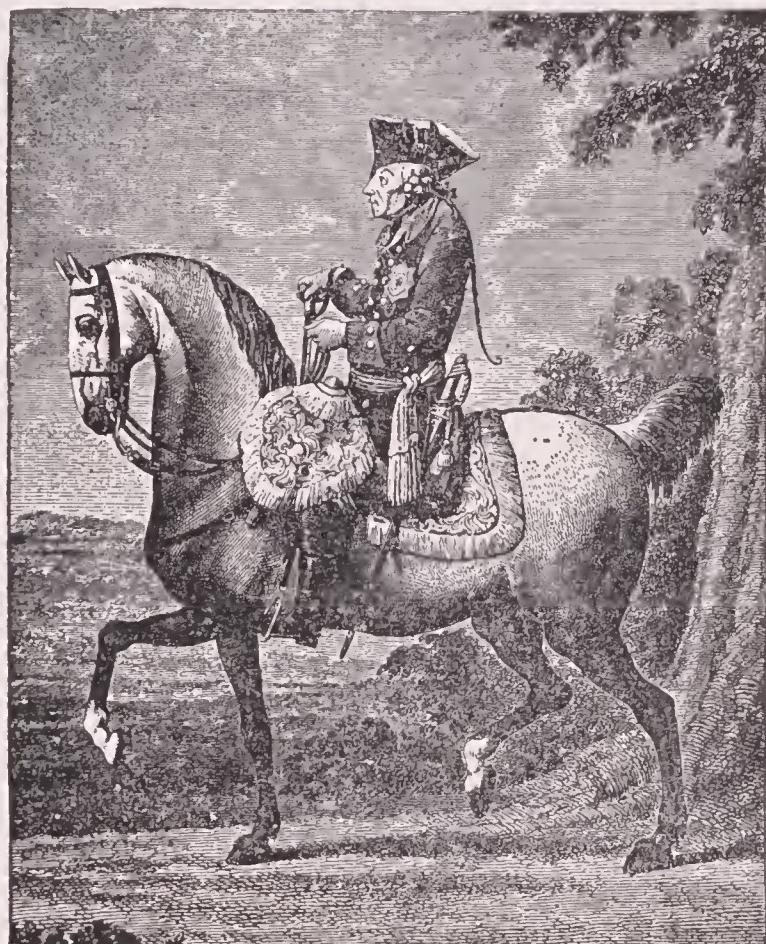
Frederick insisted upon being the government itself, and, since he was honest and wise and the friend of the people, they trusted and believed in him. This was all very well so long as he was king, but the trouble was sure to come when he gave way to a successor who lacked his admirable qualities.

I have told you in another place that among the wits and brilliant men whom Frederick invited to Sansouci was Voltaire, the famous Frenchman. Frederick had formed a great admiration for him when the old king ruled and the son was in disfavor. Voltaire and young Frederick corresponded, and the Frenchman went to Berlin in response to a warm invitation from the king. He staid there nearly three years, treated all the while like an honored guest, but he was much disliked because he was always sneering at German tastes and habits. Finally Frederick lost patience, the two had a bitter quarrel, and

Voltaire left in high dudgeon, the two never afterward becoming friends again.

Now bear in mind that Joseph II. bore the name of German Emperor from 1765 to 1790, but he was only a figure-head. Maria Theresa, his mother, who lived until 1780, kept the guidance of Austrian affairs wholly in her own hands. Joseph felt a strong admiration for the genius and statesmanship of Frederick, and at the meetings of the two, in 1769 and 1770, the old enemies talked in the most friendly manner.

“Unhappy Poland” now attracted the attention of Prussia and Germany, for it was in a hapless plight. There was constant confusion and trouble, because of which Russia interfered. It soon became so clear that Poland would in the end become a Russian province that Austria, Prussia and Russia decided to divide it among them. The first division took place in 1772, the second in 1793,



Frederick the Great on Horseback.
From a Painting, 1777.

and the last in 1795, and that was the end of Poland, which passed out of existence. In justice to Maria Theresa it must be said that she consented to the first step in this partition with much reluctance, for she did not hold it justified by the anarchy in Poland. Moreover, with all that has been said in praise of Frederick the Great, it must be added that *he* felt no compunctions of conscience, and, in truth, was never troubled in that way when the chance offered of strengthening or extending his own territory at the expense of a neighbor.

When the elector of Bavaria died without heirs, Joseph II. laid claim to that country; but Frederick, who did not mean that Austria should grow too strong in South Germany, marched into Bohemia in 1778 and opened what is known as the *Austrian War of Succession*. For a long time the Austrian and Prussian armies faced each other, but hesitated to open battle. Russia sided with Prussia, and Maria Theresa asked Russia and France to mediate. As a consequence, peace was agreed upon in 1779. Joseph, however, was not satisfied, and in 1785, after the death of his mother, he made another attempt to secure Bavaria, but again Frederick frustrated him by forming the *League of Princes*, whereupon Joseph gave up his scheme.

Upon the death of Maria Theresa, in 1780, Joseph introduced many wise reforms in his dominions, the most noted being the *Edict of Tolerance*. He met with much opposition, for he made the mistake of imposing the same rigid laws upon widely different nationalities. Revolts occurred, and, much to his grief, he was compelled to give up his cherished plans for the betterment of his people.

In addition, he took deeply to heart the failure of his war against the Turks, and no doubt his death in 1790 was hastened by his disappointments.

His brother, Leopold II., came to the throne in the year named, and, though he reigned only until 1792, he did a vast deal of good. Seeing how impracticable most of the reforms of his predecessor were, he abolished them; he soothed Hungary, which was in a ferment; subdued Belgium, and made peace with the Turks. His son, Francis II., became German Emperor in 1792, reigning as such until 1806, and as Emperor of Austria from 1804 to 1835. It was under this worthless wretch that Germany was called upon to pass through the lowest valley of humiliation in her history, the particulars of which are given in the following chapters.

Frederick the Great died August 17, 1786, at the age of seventy-four, leaving a kingdom of 6,000,000 inhabitants, an army of more than 200,000 trained soldiers, and a sum exceeding \$50,-



Prussian Grenadier.
Time of Frederick the Great.

000,000 in the treasury. Vast indeed was the work which he did for his country, and his name will always be revered.

Frederick William II., nephew of Frederick the Great, ascended the Prussian throne in 1786, and reigned until 1797. He was inferior in every respect to his predecessor. Under his rule political and religious liberty were much restricted; Prussia formed an alliance with England and Holland, as opposed to the Austrian-Russian alliance. It was under Leopold II. and Frederick William II. that the second and third partition of Poland took place.

One shameful truth must be mentioned: Germany made French customs, manners and fashions her model. Hundreds of miserable French adventurers swarmed thither and displaced the ablest Germans in the public offices and posts of trust; the vices and immoralities of France flowed in a poisoned stream through the empire and wrought much evil.

And yet there are a few names that shine like beacon lights amid this gloom. Among them are Gotthold Ephraim V. Lessing, the brilliant critic, dramatist and miscellaneous writer, born in 1729 and died in 1781. He infused a new spirit into German literature. His writings are among the classics of his country, and are distinguished for masterly criticism, forcible reasoning and brilliancy of style. Carlisle himself, one of the most brilliant of writers, said of Lessing: "He thinks with the clearness and piercing sharpness of the most expert logician; but a genial fire pervades him—a wit, a heartiness, a general richness and fineness of nature to which most logicians are strangers."

Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (*göt'teh*), the greatest modern poet of Germany, and the regenerator of German literature, was born in 1749 and died in 1832. His first romantic drama was produced in 1773, and roused great enthusiasm in the German literary world. A year later he brought out *The Sufferings of Young Werther*, which became immensely popular. In 1775 the Duke of Saxe Weimar invited Goethe to take up his residence at his court, where he shone as the bright particular sun among the other literary stars, which included such as Wieland, Schiller, Herder and Senckendorff. In 1792 he accompanied the army of the King of Prussia and the Duke of Brunswick in its French campaign, of which he wrote the history. When he returned he was appointed Minister of State. In 1805 appeared the first portion of his great masterpiece, *Faust*, which placed him on the crest of literary fame. Two years later the Czar of Russia conferred upon him the order of St. Alexander Newski, and Napoleon followed with the grand cross of the Legion of Honor. The second part of *Faust* appeared in 1831. It was said of Goethe that he represented in himself alone



Leopold II. in Imperial Robes.

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the whole of German literature. His keen and profound insight into human life and character, his encyclopediac knowledge, his sublime imagination, his exquisite sensibility and play of fancy, and his consummate style place him high in the constellation of literary genius that appeared in the latter half of the seventeenth and beginning of the eighteenth centuries.



Johann Wolfgang von Goethe.

He was in truth the master mind of the fatherland.

Johann Christoph Friedrich von Schiller (*shil'lr*) was

born in 1759 and died in 1806. He studied medicine, was surgeon in a regiment, and at the age of twenty-one wrote his tragedy of *The Robbers*, which at once gave him a front rank among the dramatists of his country. He produced other tragedies, which added to his fame, and he became the warm friend of Goethe. In 1789 he was appointed to the chair of history in the University of Jena, where his lectures were attended by crowded audiences. He wrote various literary works, among them a *History of the Thirty Years' War*. He also produced the *Xenian*, a collection of epigrams, and wrote his *Ballads*, which rank with the finest compositions of their kind in any language. Among the works that have immortalized Schiller are *Wallenstein*, *Mary Stuart*, *Joan of Arc* and *William Tell*.

CHAPTER XIV.

RISE OF FRANCE AND DOWNFALL OF GERMANY.

1791-1806.

YOU will find in our History of France a full account of the overturning of the French throne, the awful Reign of Terror, the meteor-like rise of Napoleon Bonaparte, the colossal wars between the nations, the wonderful success of the greatest military genius that ever lived, his downfall, the recasting of the map of

Europe, and the subsequent events in the history of France down to the present time.

The great Napoleon played football with the kingdoms and monarchies around him, and since none received more merciless treatment than Germany, it is necessary to recall the principal events of those woful days in Europe, when, as one writer said, the Corsican threatened to disturb the equilibrium of the universe.

As you remember, the revolt in France was caused by the horrible tyranny which the people had endured for generations. Ground into the dust, the writhing worm at last turned, and the atrocities that followed appalled the world. The National Assembly set up in France became a hideous engine of death, and tens of thousands of innocent men and women were killed against whom not the shadow of wrongdoing could be brought. The Christian religion was abolished, churches were closed and Sunday proclaimed a thing of the past. The "Age of Reason" was set up, and a shameless actress was borne on a litter to the Cathedral of Notre Dame, placed upon the altar, and adored as the "Goddess of Reason."

But the germ of the revolt against tyranny was justice and the rights of the people. The result was the spirit of insurrection run wild. The ideas of democracy or government by the people spread into the surrounding countries, and many patriots in Germany hailed the era as the dawn of better things, while the monarchs themselves trembled, for none dared attempt to foretell when the storm would break upon his dominions, nor how long it would rage, nor what the end would be.



The Goddess of Reason in the Cathedral of Notre Dame.

The profession of atheism by the Commune of Paris, and the general collapse of old social restraints, brought much that was foul and hideous to light. Churches were desecrated and plundered ; the tombs of the kings were rifled, and over the entrance to the cemeteries were inscribed the words : "Death is an eternal sleep."

It was inevitable that the French National Assembly should soon begin to interfere with the rights of the German Imperial States, and it was only natural that the princes of those numerous petty States should appeal to the Emperor Leopold II. to protect them against such an invasion of their privileges. Besides, there were thousands of Frenchmen who had fled to Germany from the Reign of Terror, and they begged the emperor to lead an army into France and set up the monarchy again. The emperor hesitated to undertake the tremendous task alone, for he could not feel sure of his own people, among whom the seeds of discontent had been widely sown. Moreover, none of the other powers showed a disposition to join him and he had good ground for being deliberate.

Matters grew more threatening, and in August, 1791, the emperor met the King of Prussia at Pilnitz to discuss the dangerous situation. An attempt was made to keep peace with France, but Leopold saw it could not be done, and, in the following year, he formed an alliance with Prussia. A few days later the emperor died, and was succeeded by his detestable son, Francis II. The attempt of Frederick William to create an alliance of Prussia, Austria, Russia and Sweden against France only succeeded so far as I have named, and added to the intense resentment of the French National Assembly against Germany. France demanded of Austria that she should disarm, and was answered that this would be done if France would make good her violation of rights in the Imperial States. The National Assembly promptly declared war.

Prussia and Austria, supported by a few of the smaller

States, raised two armies, one numbering 110,000, commanded by the Duke of Brunswick, which was to march through Belgium to Paris, while the other army of 50,000 was to occupy Alsace. The movements were ponderous, the commanders wrangled, and, in September, 1792, the Germans were checked at Valmy and compelled to retreat toward the Rhine. The French displayed amazing vigor, and gained such successes that by the close of the year all Belgium and Aix-la-Chapelle itself fell into their hands. Meanwhile, another French army advanced to the Rhine, and captured Speyer (*spire*), Worms and Mayence. In the latter city a republican movement was set on foot intended to affect the sentiment of Germany.

These successes were followed in January, 1793, by the execution of Louis XVI., and, in October following, by that of Maria Antoinette. These dreadful acts horrified Europe and led to the formation of the First Coalition, in which England, Holland, Prussia, Austria, the "German Empire," Sardinia, Naples and Spain combined to crush France. The only monarch who failed to join was Catharine II. of Russia, not because she did not hate France, but because she wished to remain free to benefit her empire at the expense of Turkey and Poland. You will re-



Emperor Francis II.

member that the last partition of Poland had not taken place at that time.

Most of the year 1793 was favorable to the allies. The French were driven out of Belgium, and were defeated by the Austrians on the Rhine at Neerwinden and Kaiserslautern, but these defeats only roused France to greater energy, while her enemies had no unity of action.

Prussia and Austria were jealous of each other, and some of the commanders were sluggish and inefficient. France summoned the whole country to arms, and in the following year her armies entered and occupied Belgium a second time. Spain, Holland and Sardinia gave scarcely any help while Holland was conquered, William V. of Orange fleeing in haste to England, whereupon Holland was turned into a Batavian Republic, dependent on France. Frederick



Frederick William II.

William II. was so dissatisfied that he withdrew from the coalition and made a treaty, independent of the others, with France. This treaty was signed in 1795, and is known as that of Basle. By its terms Prussia ceded the left side of the Rhine and pledged herself not to interfere in Belgium and Holland. All the territory north of a line drawn through Germany from the Main to Silesia was to be kept neutral by Prussia, while the territory south was to share the fate of Austria. In one

sense, this was a good thing for Prussia, since it secured her peace for ten years, but in the end it left her wholly alone when she was in sore need of help.

The partition of Poland having been completed, Catharine II. now joined England and Austria in the war against France. She agreed to send both an army and fleet; Austria was to raise 200,000 men, and England was to contribute \$20,000,000 toward the expenses of the war. The French were defeated in several engagements by the Austrians on the Rhine, but little was accomplished during the summer of 1795, and an armistice was declared in January, 1796. Peace had been made by Spain and Sardinia, and Austria was growing weary of the war.

But by this time Napoleon Bonaparte had fairly begun his marvellous career. United with him were Moreau (*mo-ro'*), Massena and others, who, following his rule of making the conquered States pay the expenses of the war, and often a great deal more, added immense sums to the public treasury, strengthened the French Republic and roused the people to the glory of further conquests. Thus the coalition against France resulted in making it more powerful than before.



Moreau.

It took Napoleon but a short time to conquer the north of Italy, his purpose being to press on to Vienna, where a second French army was to meet him, by advancing through Germany. This army, however, was defeated by the Archduke Charles, brother of the emperor, who com-

elled it to retire into Bavaria. Napoleon continued his advance into Austria, capturing Mantua and gaining new victories over the Austrians. The brilliant Archduke could not check him, and he was close to Vienna when he concluded the Peace of Campo Formio in 1797. In the following year Lombardy, the Papal States and the Swiss Confederation were made respectively into a Cis-Alpine, a Roman and a Helvetian republic, all dependent upon France.



Jourdan.

That country had been so successful that she became arrogant and demanded new concessions. All Europe was alarmed, and another coalition was proposed, but the year 1798 drew to a close without it being done. Napoleon at that time was absent in Egypt, from which, as you will remember, he made a hurried and secret return to France, prompted by a clear perception of the momentous events impending.

The second coalition was formed early in 1799, with England, Russia, Austria, Naples and Turkey arrayed

against France, while Spain and Prussia persisted in remaining neutral. In Russia, Paul I. had succeeded Catherine, and in Prussia King Frederick William III. succeeded his father in 1797, reigning until 1840. He, too, believed that the only safety of Prussia lay in preserving peace, and he could not be persuaded to enter into a war with France.

Hostilities opened early in the year. The two French generals, Jourdan and Bernadotte, were defeated by the Archduke, who thus released the right side of the Rhine. In Italy the French armies, being without the presence of Napoleon, were defeated, and the Russians under General Suwarow, and aided by the Austrians, reconquered North Italy—Genoa and Nice being all that was left to the French. Two French ambassadors were waylaid and murdered by a party of Austrian hussars, it is believed by order of the court at Vienna. No investigation was ordered, and the French people were roused to fury against Austria for the infamous act.

Suwarow, disgusted with the interference of the Austrian generals, fought his way through the gorges of the Alps, and was soon afterward recalled by the Russian emperor, who had become suspicious of Austria, and



Bernadotte.

began to feel friendly disposed toward France. The English campaign in the Netherlands was an utter failure.

Napoleon's scheme for overthrowing England's supremacy in Egypt failed, owing to the destruction of the whole French fleet at Aboukir (*ah-boo-keer'*) Bay by

Nelson, August 1, 1798, and, as has been stated, he made a hasty and secret return to France, where, on his arrival, he overthrew the government and made himself First Consul for ten years. This was in November, 1799. Being now at the head of the nation, he proposed peace to the coalition on the basis of the Treaty of Campo Formio, but England and Austria refused, believing that the fortunes of war were inclining in their favor. Napoleon had no trouble in holding Prussia neutral, and, since England's only part in the war was through her navy and contribu-



Suwarow.

tions of money, France, with her armies flushed with victory and commanded by her best generals, had to face only Austria. To add to her advantage, the only good general Austria had in the field, the Archduke Charles, lost patience with the continual interference of the Court of Vienna, and threw up his command, which was given to the Archduke John, who, although only a boy nineteen years old, was placed at the head of an army of 100,000 men.

This immense force was strewn along from the Alps to Frankfurt, and Moreau had no trouble in breaking through it and overrunning Baden and Würtemburg. About the same time Napoleon hastily and secretly collected another army, made a terrific march over the St. Bernard Pass in the Alps, and descended upon Italy like a cyclone. On the field of Marengo a tremendous battle was fought, June 14, 1800. Marengo was a village on the vast plains between Alessandria and Tortona. The battle was as obstinate as it was furious, lasting for thirteen hours. Victory inclined toward the Austrian side, for they repulsed the French four times, and a retreat was under way when, at the critical juncture, Desaix (*do-zay'*), one of the bravest and most dashing of the French generals, arrived with the reserves. He was mortally wounded by a cannon ball, but his men fought with such desperation that a complete victory resulted, and everything that had been gained by the Austrians during their campaign was lost. The French obtained possession of all of North Italy.

Napoleon now offered peace to Austria on the same terms as before, and an armistice was concluded. The emperor, however, was foolish enough to believe he still



Desaix.

had hope, and he employed the interval in recruiting his armies. When the truce ended Moreau advanced against the new Austrian army of 90,000, and the two forces met at Hohenlinden on the 3d of December. One of the most furious and bloody of battles was fought in the midst of a blinding snowstorm, where the combatants could see each other only by the flashes of their guns. The French were victorious, and nothing could have saved Vienna from capture had not the emperor concluded the treaty of Luneville on terms which practically broke up the German empire. This treaty, made February 9, 1801, reduced the fifty-two free German cities to six—Frankfort, Hamburg, Bremen, Lubeck, Nuremburg and Augsburg; Germany lost three million inhabitants, and only a shadow of Austria's influence in Germany and Italy remained. For this calamity the indifference of Prussia and the lack of political common sense on the part of Austria were responsible.

France was now supreme in Europe. Prussia was so scared that she dared not raise a hand or voice in protest; Austria had been shorn of her power; Holland, Switzerland and Italy were dominated by France; Spain, Denmark and Russia were friendly, and in 1802 England consented to make peace with Napoleon, who, in the same year, declared himself First Consul for life, and for years to follow held France in the hollow of his hand.

No nation with any spirit could remain long at peace with a ruler of such boundless ambition as Napoleon Bonaparte. It was easy for him to find a pretext for war, and he soon found it with England. Hanover was overrun and plundered, while Prussia and the other German States looked on and said and did nothing.



Charge of the Twelfth Hussars in the Battle of Marengo.

Sweeping down with furious shouts, the hussars burst through the Austrian columns, scattering them to the right and left in utter rout. General de Zach and his grenadiers were cut off, surrounded, and compelled to surrender. Napoleon was so proud of the day that he named his favorite charger in honor of it.

One of the many cruel acts of Napoleon was committed in March, 1804, when he sent a body of armed men across the Rhine into Baden, seized the Duke d'Enghien, a fugitive Bourbon prince, and had him brought to Paris and shot. Indifferent to the horror and indignation caused by the crime, Napoleon, two months later, assumed the title of Emperor of the French ; changed the Republics of Italy into the Kingdom of Italy, and began a rule the like of which the world has never seen and is not likely ever to see again.

England, Austria and Russia were determined to cripple Napoleon, and they formed the Third Coalition. Much effort and time were wasted in trying to persuade Prussia to enter into the alliance, but the king not only refused, but sent troops to prevent the Russian army from crossing his territory on their way to join the Austrians. The summer of 1805 saw the coalition completed, Sweden having been added, and plans were formed for sending nearly 400,000 bayonets into the field against France.

Napoleon learned what was doing, and gathered an army of 200,000 at Boulogne for the invasion of England, but, giving up that plan, marched swiftly into Southern Germany, secured the alliance of Baden, Württemberg and Bavaria, and, with a considerable addition to his army, he struck with his usual bewildering suddenness. The fortress of Ulm, held by an Austrian garrison of 24,000, was obliged to surrender. The French pressed onward, scattered the opposition of portions of the allied forces along the Danube, and, on November 13,

Napoleon made his triumphal entry into Vienna, while Francis II. and the Austrian court fled to Presburg.

The Russian and Austrian armies had united in Moravia, both the emperors, Alexander and Francis, being present. Napoleon acted as if trying to avoid a battle, and thereby drew on his enemy to meet him in the field. On December 2, at Austerlitz, was fought what the Germans call the "Battle of the Three Emperors." It was a great French victory, the losses of the allies amounting to 15,000 killed and wounded, 20,000 prisoners and 200 cannon.

The blow was decisive and crushing, and Francis II. went personally to Napoleon and begged for an armistice, which was granted. A treaty of peace was signed three weeks after the battle, by which Austria gave up Venice to France, Tyrol to Bavaria, and other territory to Baden and Würtemberg; accepted the policy of France in Italy, Holland and Switzerland, and recognized Bavaria and Würtemberg as independent kingdoms; bound herself to pay \$20,000,000 to France, and to permit the formation of a new confederation of the smaller German States, to be under the protectorship of Napoleon. This, in 1806, was made the *Rhenish Confederation*, which was entered into by seventeen States, that, together, formed a third power, independent both of Austria and Prussia. Each German prince was granted sovereignty in his own State, and each bound himself to aid Napoleon and to furnish him a certain number of men in the event of war.

When the existence of the Confederation was declared at the Diet of Regensburg, the unworthy Emperor Francis II.

laid down his German imperial crown, and from that time forward wore the title of Emperor of Austria only instead of the proud one of "Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation." Founded by Charlemagne, Germany had existed for a thousand years, reaching its culmination under the Hohenstauffens, but even then the dry rot was at its roots and it had long ceased to be a nation before the official declaration was made of that fact.

The ancient German Empire was dead. The left side of the Rhine and its beautiful towns were French, and the States of the Rhenish Confederation were French vassals, and Austria could only look on with lips that were mute and hands that were powerless while the Corsican wrought out his terrible will.

CHAPTER XV.

NAPOLEON'S OVERSHADOWING POWER. 1806–1813.

NAPOLEON was like a huge mastiff, sitting on his haunches, with a lot of timid poodles gathered round him. If one ventured to raise his head, a warning growl from the master caused him to drop it instantly, in mortal fear of the massive jaws. A little way off several bigger dogs were crouched, with their eyes on

the mastiff. They were talking together in their own language and wondering whether, if they made a combined attack upon the big brute, they could not put him to flight. "Let me alone," he growled; "do not interfere with me and you won't get hurt; but the moment you mix in it will be the worse for you."

The German Empire, as I have said, existed no longer. The Austrian emperor had given up the title of ruler in 1806, and that which had borne the proud name of empire was simply a collection of puny little States, so completely the slaves of Napoleon that they bound themselves to help him fight their own neighbors whenever it was his Imperial will that they should do so. Prussia had acted the coward, and because of that she had to drink deep of the bitter cup of humiliation. Austria had been stubborn and foolish, but the severe lesson had been taught to her. England, Russia and some weaker countries were wondering what was coming next.

Now note how Napoleon played havoc with the nations around him. He gave the kingdom of Naples to his weak, elder brother Joseph; made his stepson Viceroy of Italy; changed Holland into a kingdom and presented it to his brother Louis; turned over the Duchy of Jülich,



Joseph Bonaparte.

Cleves and Berg to Murat (*mah-rah'*), his brother-in-law, while the German States, with their population of 13,000,-000, were made into a confederation, of which Napoleon was the Protector.

By this arrangement the German empire was divided into: 1. Austria, which had just been conquered. 2. Prussia, weak and cowardly. 3. The remainder, whose policy was regulated by a Diet held at Frankfurt.



Frederick William III.

The only nation which felt friendly toward poor, miserable Prussia was England. Napoleon ordered Prussia to give up Anspach and Bayreuth to Bavaria, taking Hanover in their place, and this offended England. Southern Germany was overrun by the French armies, who were so brutal and savage that the people grew impatient

with their government; but Frederick William III. was too scared to do anything until, in the summer of 1806, when he discovered that Napoleon had offered Hanover to England and Prussian Poland to Russia as a condition of peace. Then, when the king was without any real ally, he decided to make war against Napoleon. The little poodle at last dared to raise its head and face the mastiff.

Napoleon must have smiled grimly when he learned

all this, for it offered him just the kind of amusement he enjoyed. While Frederick William III. was getting ready, Napoleon arrived in Franconia at the head of an army of 200,000 men, a part of whom were furnished by the confederation itself. Prussia, aided by Saxony and Weimar, mustered 150,000 soldiers, who, advancing to the bases of the Thuringian Mountains, were met by the French on October 14, 1806. Two battles were fought, one at Jena and the other at Auerstadt, in which the Prussians were defeated and scattered like so much chaff in a hurricane.

The terrific disaster threw Prussia into a wild panic, so that fortress and post, one after the other, surrendered upon the approach of the French without firing a gun. Ten days after the first victories the invaders were in Berlin, and a month later Napoleon himself rode into the city in triumph. The people were so terrified at sight of the mighty conqueror that they agreed, for the sake of peace, to give up all of the kingdom west of the Elbe. The king, who had run away, would not consent to this surrender, and made an alliance with Alexander I. of Russia to continue fighting. Napoleon, who was as great in



Louis Bonaparte.

diplomacy as war, bound Saxony to him by elevating it to a kingdom, held Austria neutral, started a revolt in Prussian Poland and got possession of Silesia. The chance was a fine one for England to do effective work, but she did nothing.

Marching eastward during the winter, Napoleon met the Prussians and Russians, at the bloody battle of Eylau (*i'lōw*), February 8, 1807. The result was indecisive, and he made a truce for several months. This gave an opportunity for an alliance on the part of England and Sweden with Russia and Prussia. Hostilities were resumed at the opening of summer, and on June 14 Napoleon, with a much superior army, beat the allies so decisively at Friedland that they were driven tumultuously over the river Memel into Russian territory.



Murat.

This tremendous battle lasted from daylight until the middle of the night. The Russians fought with the greatest bravery, and the victory was theirs; but in their elation they forgot prudence, and failed to take the precaution in which alone lay safety. As the afternoon was drawing to a close the divisions under Ney (*na'*) and Victor, together with Bonaparte's guard, charged upon the field with shouts

of "Vive L'Empereur!" and drove everything before them.

The Russians immediately concluded an armistice. Alexander I. met Napoleon on a raft in the river and a strange result followed. The weak, sentimental Russian monarch formed an intense admiration for Napoleon, and became his ally! You may be sure that the great man made the best of the opportunity thus thrown in his way. At another interview Frederick William III. was present, and the Peace of Tilsit was declared on July 9, 1807, by which Prussia lost nearly half her territory and population. Moreover, the total amount of contributions that she had to pay was about \$150,000,000, and she was obliged to maintain a French army in her shrunken territory until the last penny was handed over.

Her cowardly course was receiving its punishment. The Russian emperor consented to all this, and the Prussian queen, Louisa, died soon afterward, broken-hearted because of the calamities of her country. A new kingdom of Westphalia was formed, over which Jerome, the brother of Napoleon, was made king. Germany had now reached the lowest depth of degradation. Fortunately, the men at the helm of government were wise and far-seeing, and



Gustavus III., King of Sweden.

the measures they set on foot promised to bear good fruit ere long, though no one could say when the day of deliverance would come. Austria also toiled in the same direction, and Napoleon viewed the policy of the two with misgiving. He had conquered Spain and made his brother Joseph king, his brother-in-law succeeding him as King

of Naples. There were so many revolts in Spain that Napoleon was obliged to keep a considerable force there. Austria thought the chance a favorable one for regaining the rights of which she had been robbed, and began war. She first appealed "to the German nation," but that nation was too frightened to raise a hand to help her, and the task Austria had undertaken proved too great for her. Her army, which invaded Bavaria in April, 1809, was defeated, and Napoleon again entered Vienna on May 13. The Austrian army, advancing on Vienna, drove the French across the Danube, but in the battle of Wagram, on June 5 and 6, the Austrians, despite their bravery and skillful leadership, were overcome. The war was terminated by the Peace of Vienna, and Austria was compelled to give up a big slice of her provinces.

There was one body of people, however, whom no one could conquer: they were the Tyrolese, who were peasants



Marshal Ney.

and mountaineers, led by the innkeeper, Andreas Hofer and Haspinger the monk. They revolted early in 1809, and by their vigor and energy cleared the Alps of the enemy. Their example roused others, and when Napoleon returned from Spain he found that the Archduke Charles had an army of 300,000 men at his disposal. With his usual swiftness, Napoleon raised a force of nearly 200,000 men, and was in Bavaria early in April, before the Archduke was prepared. His forces were scattered, and he lost three battles in succession. Hofer, after freeing the Tyrol three times, was betrayed to his enemies on the renewed invasion of French and Bavarians, condemned by a court-martial at Mantua and shot February 20, 1810. His body was buried in the cathedral at Innspruck; his widow was pensioned by the Austrian government and his son raised to the rank of nobility.

All these uprisings, although unsuccessful, showed the patriotic spirit of the people, and wise men saw in them the signs of the downfall of the Corsican, whose terrific will overrode every obstacle. The Papal State was added to the French empire, and Rome was made an imperial city. Holland was incorporated with France on the north,



General Victor.

and the Hanseatic towns of Hamburg, Bremen and Lübeck were seized in order that Napoleon might enforce the continental blockade against England. Then Napoleon, because he had no children, divorced his wife Josephine and married Maria Louisa, daughter of the Austrian emperor. A son was born to them, known as Napoleon II., King of Rome, but he became consumptive and died while a young man.

The wonderful conqueror was at the height of power, while Germany writhed under his heel. Commerce and industry were crippled; freedom of speech and word stifled; taxes were extorted, and all Europe was blighted by the curse of this one man.

There was no satisfying the ambition of such a monster. Nothing less than the conquest of the world would have caused him to stop war. He was continually looking for a pretext, and of course never failed to find it. Alexander I. of Russia, being beyond his reach, could no longer be hypnotized. He was offended by several acts of Napoleon, and, in 1811, adopted new laws which gave notice that he had broken away from the continental blockade.

It was clear to all nations that a colossal and decisive war was coming, and a year was spent in getting ready for it. By the opening of 1812 the prodigious plans were completed. Prussia, feeling that no misfortune could make her condition worse, promised to provide 20,000 soldiers, Austria 30,000, and the remainder of Germany 150,000. France raised more than 300,000, and on June 24, 1812, Napoleon, crossing the Niemen (*nē'men*; Polish, *nuem'en*), invaded Russia, defeated the Rus-



Andreas Hofer Led to Execution.

Hofer was a man of humble piety who fairly represented the people he led. He towered a head above all others, with a black beard that reached to his waist. A priest betrayed him to his death.

sians at Smolensk on August 16 and 17, with frightful losses on both sides, and entered a country which the people themselves had laid waste that it might not afford food to the invaders. Early in September the Russian army offered battle on the field of Borodino (*-dee'no*), where was fought the most awful battle of all of Napoleon's wars. When the fighting ceased 80,000 dead and wounded lay stretched on the earth, and all to satisfy the ambition of one execrable wretch.

One week later, Napoleon marched into the ancient city of Moscow. He found the place deserted; the treasures and movable goods had been taken away, and the following night several fires broke out. It was impossible to check them, and at the end of a week nearly the whole city was in ashes. Napoleon had taken up his quarters in the Kremlin, the old palace of the czars, and was compelled to make his escape through the burning streets.

Thus the immense army was caught in the centre of Russia, without shelter and provisions, and with the fearful Arctic winter at hand. The horrors of that disastrous retreat can never be pictured. The Cossacks hovered on the French flanks and continually cut off the men tottering through the snow, where most of them would have frozen to death had they been left to themselves. Throughout the long, never-ending miles the roads were filled with the dead and dying, and when at last Napoleon forced his way over the Beresina (*-see-na*) against a powerful Russian force, he had only 30,000 left of a dozen times that number with which he entered Russia. At



15—*Ellis' Germany.*

Retreat of the "Grand Army" from Russia.

Napoleon, wrapped in furs and under an assumed name, fled to France, leaving the remnant of the Grand Army to its fate. Worn out, and wrapped in rags and straw, such as escaped the intense cold and the Cossack lances reached the Prussian frontier near the end of 1812.

Wilna all that remained were the guards and rear-guard of 2,500 Bavarians, which were placed under the command of Murat, while Napoleon, accompanied by several of his generals, made his way through Warsaw and Dresden to Paris.

This appalling calamity started a general uprising in Germany. Frederick William III. held back, but was soon forced forward, despite his terror of Napoleon, and, on February 28, 1813, Prussia entered into a formal alliance with Russia against him. Roused to energetic action, Frederick William declared war against France, March 16, and the next day issued a proclamation calling upon the nation to rise for their liberty and independence. The response was thrilling, for it looked as if every man without exception was rushing forward to fight, and, if necessary, to die in the sacred cause. Professors and students, scholars and peasants, only sons gladly given by their parents, lovers sent forth by their sweethearts, workmen from the workshops, merchants from their offices, with boys hardly old enough to carry a musket, clamored for places in the ranks. The women sent their gold and jewelry to the treasury and wore ornaments of iron, while men sold cattle, horses and clothing to provide funds for the government. Hundreds of women disguised themselves and sought admission into the armies, and some of them succeeded and fought with as much bravery as their fathers and brothers.

It passes comprehension how a nation like France submitted to the whim of the most colossal murderer of the world's history. He had set out for Moscow with nearly



On the Altar of Fatherland.

Arms, food and clothing were wanted for the sacred cause. Those who had no money brought goods, rivaling one another in their gfits. Young girls gave their hair; brides their wedding rings. Women sent husbands, sons and lovers. It was a disgrace to remain behind.

half a million of her sons, and brought back less than one for each ten, and now, by hustling old men and boys into the ranks, he raised another army of half a million as food for gunpowder.

With all the splendid patriotism of which I have spoken, there was discord and holding back among the enemies of France. Some of the Confederation abjectly clung to her; Austria remained neutral, and the Russian generals were sluggish and jealous of one another. Sweden, however, joined the movement on condition that if it proved successful she should be rewarded with Norway.

The Prussians opened the campaign well and gained a number of successes, but Napoleon defeated the allies in Saxony at Lützen and Bautzen in May. An armistice was agreed to, Napoleon's purpose being to win the support of Austria. Her position was something like that of an umpire between him and the allies, both of whom did their utmost to secure her alliance. She proposed terms of settlement of the quarrel, but Napoleon rejected them, and two days after the end of the armistice, that is, on August 12, Austria declared war against France.

The armies of the allies numbered about 500,000, made up of the northern, the Silesian and the Bohemian armies, while Napoleon had a force of 440,000 near Dresden. The plan of the allies was to unite and fight him on the plains of Leipzig, while Napoleon meant, as usual, to attack and defeat each army separately before the junction could be effected.

It was only two weeks after the conclusion of the

armistice that Blücher, now seventy years old, won a fine victory at the stream called the Katzbach, in Silesia, where he defeated the French, with a loss on their part of 12,000 killed and wounded, 18,000 prisoners and 103 cannon. In the crisis of the battle Blücher shouted, "*Forwards! forwards!*" and because of this he was afterward called "Marshal Forwartz" by his men.

CHAPTER XVI.

OVERTHROW OF NAPOLEON. 1813-1815.

THE army of Napoleon was not quite 200,000, and that of the allies about 300,000, the lines extending many miles over the open plain on all sides of Leipzig, except to the west. There were three distinct battles on October 16, one of which Blücher won, while the French gained the other two. Under one of Murat's cavalry charges he came within a hair of capturing Frederick William and Alexander I. The day closed without decisive result. Napoleon sent proposals of peace, but no reply was made, and the allies thus gained a day in which to bring up reinforcements.

The greatest battle ever fought in the United States was that of Gettysburg, during the first three days of July, 1863. In that terrific struggle the earth shook under

the thunder of more than two hundred cannon, but at Leipzig a thousand cannon added their crash and boom to the awful uproar, and nearly a dozen villages were on fire and mingled their heat and smoke in the throbbing air.

Napoleon, who was watching the battle from an elevation near a windmill, saw both his wings driven back, though his centre held its position ; but the most demoralizing incident was the desertion of 4,000 Saxons and other Germans who passed over from the French and joined the allies. Napoleon gave orders for a retreat, which began on the night of the 18th. He had lost nearly half his army, while the killed and wounded of the allies numbered 50,000. He had been completely defeated, and made haste to leave Leipzig, which was stormed by the allies and the King of Saxony taken prisoner. All the German fortresses garrisoned by the French fell into their hands ; the French were driven out of Holland, and the Rhenish Confederation was dissolved. Jerome Bonaparte had returned to Cassel, which was now occupied by the Russians, and the Kingdom of Westphalia was wiped out of existence. Other banished princes straggled back to their countries, and George III. of England resumed the government of Hanover.

Thus Germany was freed to the Rhine, but she could never be safe so long as Napoleon was at large. It was decided, therefore, that the war should be pressed until he was dethroned.

On the first day of the year 1814 France was invaded by two armies, the Silesian, under command of Blücher,

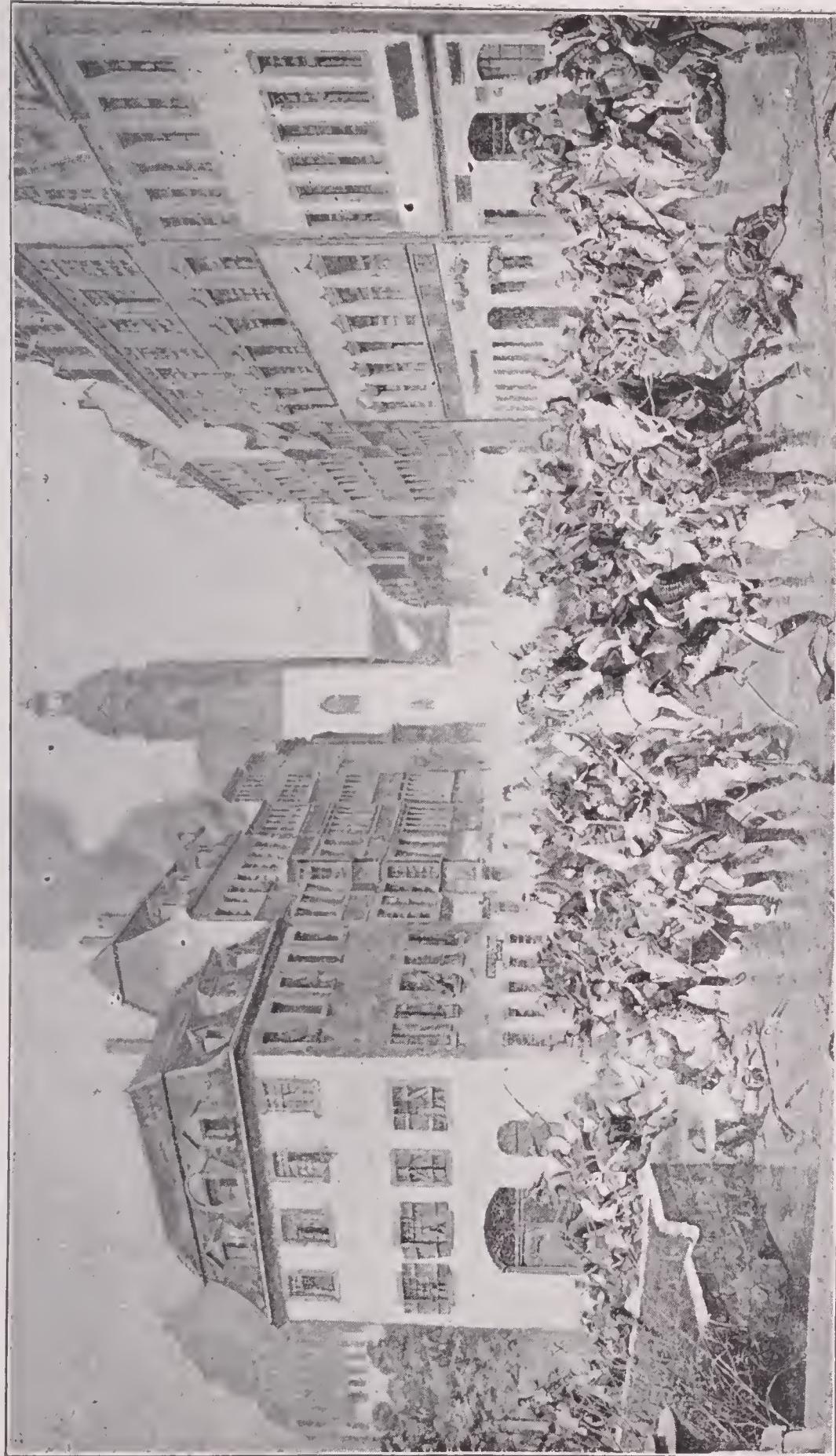


Marshal Blücher Defeats the French on the Katzbach, near Liegnitz.

The battle was named that of the Katzbach, from the position held by the Russian general, Sacken, who supported the Prussians admirably, and was a complete victory for the Army of Silesia. It was fought close by the spot where the Mongol invasion had been checked nearly six centuries before.

and the chief army under Schwarzenberg. These two united on the Plateau of Langres (*laung'r*), and Napoleon opened the campaign from Chalons. The first collision with Blücher at Brienne was indecisive, but several days later Napoleon was defeated by the allies at La Rothiere (*rotear*). Then they set out for Paris, but the two armies separated, and Napoleon, falling upon each, defeated them in turn, but was unable to ward off the advance upon Paris. This was accompanied by several successes, and he strove to stop the invaders by furious assaults in the rear, but failed. The forces sent out from Paris to help him were routed and driven back. The proud capital was doomed. The empress and her young son and Joseph Bonaparte fled from the city, which, seeing all hope gone, surrendered. On March 31 Frederick William III. and Emperor Alexander rode into Paris at the head of their troops.

Napoleon was in a desperate plight. Despite his unparalleled genius, the armies of his enemies were in the capital of the empire. Unwilling to yield, he hastened thither to attack them, but his own marshals, whose dauntless bravery had been tested and proven on too many fields to be questioned, told him his course was folly, amounting to madness, and they refused to aid him. Furthermore, they advised that only one thing was left for him to do, and that was to abdicate. The bitter cup at last was pressed to his own lips and he drank the contents without flinching. On April 11, 1814, he renounced all claims to the French throne for himself and for his heirs. He was treated with more magnanimity than he deserved, for he was



Flight of Napoleon Through the Streets of Leipzig.

At the “Battle of the Nations,” as that of Leipzig is called, France stood alone against Europe in arms. Napoleon, brought fairly to bay, fought for three days against tremendous odds, under the walls of the beautiful city. Then his allies turned their guns upon him, and with the remnant of his army he fled towards the Rhine.

allowed to retain his imperial title and received the little island of Elba as a sovereign principality. The brother of Louis XVI., executed during the Reign of Terror, was now restored to the Bourbon throne as Louis XVIII., and with him the allies concluded the First Peace of Paris on May 30, 1814.

One of the strangest things attending this act was the consideration shown to France, which ought to have been stripped of the fruits of her gigantic robberies. She was allowed to retain Alsace and Lorraine, and the enormously valuable art treasures which Napoleon had stolen from other countries. Prussia earnestly protested against this great injustice to herself, but she was overruled and had to submit to the wrong in the house of her friends, or rather of those who pretended to be her friends. Queen Maria Louisa received the Duchy of Parma, and the other Bonapartes were allowed to retain the title of prince, with an income of half a million dollars. The ex-Empress Josephine was presented with \$200,000, but died the same year, and no indemnity at all was exacted from France. How different from her treatment of the nations which she overran and conquered!

Southern Germany had suffered so much that she was benumbed, and meekly accepted the terms of the peace, but the indignation was intense in the North. The German leaders at the European Congress were weak and easily outwitted by the abler ones of other countries. Talleyrand, one of the keenest, most brilliant and unscrupulous of men, acting for France, actually persuaded Austria and England to join his country in an alliance

against Russia and Prussia, and another European war would have broken out but for the startling news that Napoleon had secretly left Elba and had landed again in France.

At his island home he had been kept informed of all that was going on, of the quarrels in the Congress and the dissatisfaction with the Bourbon government. He landed at Cannes (*kan*), March 1, 1815, and found that the magic of his name was still all-powerful. "Who dares to shoot at his emperor?" he demanded, as he advanced and folded his arms in front of the forces sent to arrest him. Marshal Ney and those who had helped him to win so many of his wonderful victories pushed forward in a transport of enthusiasm and almost smothered the "Little Corporal" in their embraces. Then, with recruits flocking to him at every step, he moved toward Paris, which he reached on the 20th, after Louis XVIII. had fled to Belgium. He was received with the wildest rejoicing, and instantly set to work to organize a new army, offering peace at the same time to all the powers of Europe on the basis of the Treaty of Paris. But no one trusted his professions, for deception had always been one of his



Talleyrand.

chief means of success. Then the Congress stopped quarreling and took prompt means of crushing the relentless disturber of the peace of Europe.

Although the magnetic personality of the man enabled him to raise an army of nearly half a million, he had to use a large portion to quell outbreaks among the population, many of whom were wearied with him and his bloody ambition. At the head of 120,000 of his best troops, he marched toward Belgium in order to attack Wellington and Blücher before they could unite, that being a favorite plan of his, as you have learned in the accounts of his former victories. Wellington had about 100,000 men under him, mostly Dutch and Germans, while Blücher was approaching from the east with an army somewhat larger.

While Ney advanced to attack and keep Wellington back, Napoleon himself attacked Blücher at Ligny on June 16. The old warrior defended himself with the utmost desperation, but his horse was killed under him, and he narrowly escaped being crushed under the hoofs of the charging French cavalry. Only with the greatest difficulty was he rescued, when he was compelled to fall back. Ney's attack on Wellington was a furious one, but neither side could claim any advantage. Wellington withdrew to Waterloo the next day so as to be nearer Blücher. On June 18, 1815, Napoleon gave battle to the army which was intrenched on the heights of the village of Mont St. Jean, because of which fact the engagement is known by that name among the French, while the Germans refer to it as that of La Belle Alliance.



"The Little Corporal."

With his reappearance on the soil of France, all Europe sprang to arms.

All through that summer day, with the rain pouring in torrents, this tremendous battle raged. With all their courage and persistency, Wellington's troops were hardly able to hold their own against the repeated and furious charges of the French. Wellington saw that he could never win the mighty struggle without the help of Blücher, and often he looked longingly toward the horizon where he expected him to appear, but the minutes went by without bringing the welcome sight. But Blücher was on the road and pressing forward as fast as he could through the rain and over a marshy country. He had left a few corps in his former position to deceive his French adversary, while he strained every nerve to reach his friend, who was in sore need of his help.

It was about four o'clock in the afternoon that Napoleon made a supreme effort to break the centre of the English line. Despite the splendid bravery with which they had stood up to their work, they were beginning to weaken and signs of wavering appeared. At this critical moment the thrilling shout was heard: "The Prussians are coming! The Prussians are here!" Bülow's (*boo-low*) corps struck the French flank with terrific force; Blücher's army closed in directly after, and in a few hours the French were flying pell-mell from the field. Wellington and Blücher followed with such vigor that within ten days the allied armies stood before Paris again, and all that remained to Napoleon was to surrender.

The baffled emperor saw that this was the end. Even had he been permitted to go free, his country would not have rallied again to his support. Her hundreds of thou-



Marshal Blücher Wounded in the Battle of Ligny.

Napoleon threw his strength against Blücher, whose lines gave way; the old Prussian commander being wounded and thrown to the ground. In the heat of the charge he was not recognized, and so escaped capture. The battle of Ligny was carried on with fury on both sides, charge after charge being made to secure coveted positions.

sands of dead did not cry in vain from the ground, and there were enough shadowed hearthstones in the land without any more being added to meet the whim of one man, who had no more mercy in his heart than Satan himself.

Napoleon was inclined to make an effort to escape to America. His brother, Joseph, proposed that they should change places, the elder allowing himself to be captured for the younger. There was reason to believe the artifice might succeed, for there was a close resemblance between the appearance of the two, but Napoleon would not consent, though Joseph afterward spent a number of years on an estate near Bordentown, New Jersey. Napoleon surrendered to the captain of the *Bellerophon*, an English man-of-war off Rochefort. He was declared a prisoner by the Powers, and was sent to the island of St. Helena, where he was closely guarded until his death, May 5, 1821.

Wellington and Blücher entered Paris on July 7; Louis XVIII. trotted exultingly after them on the 8th, and the allied monarchs brought up the rear of the procession on the 10th.

The Second Peace of Paris was concluded on November 20, but again the cunning of Talleyrand prevented Austria and Prussia from acquiring Lorraine and Alsace. The stolen treasures of art and learning were restored to Italy and Germany, an indemnity of \$140,-000,000 was exacted from France, and she was obliged to maintain an army of 150,000 soldiers of the allies in a number of fortresses for five years.



16—*Ellis' Germany.*

Charge of Rousset's Cuirassiers at the Battle of Waterloo.

With flashing sabres uplifted and plumes streaming in the wind, the glittering cuirassiers came suddenly upon a half-hidden country highway. In some disorder they plunged in, scrambled up on the other side and re-formed, only to be overturned and borne back by a superb charge of the British dragoons.

Owing to the cunning malevolence of Talleyrand and of Metternich, the Austrian minister, much injury was done to Prussia, which, extending now from the Russian to the French frontier, was greatly harried by foreign foes. There was continual disputation over the form Germany was to assume. A considerable number wished to have an imperial empire established, but Austria and Prussia by previous treaties had agreed that it should not be renewed.

When the draft of a constitution, drawn up by the Prussian minister, was submitted it was strongly opposed by Metternich and the Middle States, while a second draft had to be changed a good deal before it was accepted. On June 8, 1815, the Acts of the German Confederacy were signed, thirty-nine States taking part in the same for the maintenance of the internal and external safety of Germany and the independence of the different States.

The Act of Union assured equal rights to all the States, independent sovereignty, the peaceful settlement of all disputes among them, and representation in a General Diet to be held at Frankfort, under the presidency of Austria. Together the States were to support a permanent army of 300,000 men for the common defence. All religions were made equal in the eyes of the law, the right of emigration was allowed to the people, the free navigation of the Rhine was secured, and the freedom of the press established.

In substance this act secured the supremacy of Austria, and simply united the German States in mutual defence against a common foe. The cunning hand of Metternich showed all the way through.



The Allies on the Road to Paris.

After the battle of Waterloo Napoleon fled to Paris, being the first man to bring the tidings of his own ruin to his capital. The allies closed in on Paris, and soon the Emperors of Russia and Austria and the King of Prussia met there and saw Louis XVIII. replaced on the French throne.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION. 1816–1866.

I HAVE referred more than once to the bewildering history of the German Empire. In no European country were there so many changes of boundary lines and forms of government, and it is a hard task for any one to follow the labyrinth through the last hundred years, to say nothing of the confusion that preceded that period.

But we will do our best to make it clear, for it is worth while to do so.

Let us recall a few facts. The Emperor of Austria laid down the crown of Germany in 1806, and the country was cuffed, kicked and tossed about throughout the wars with Napoleon. He was crushed at Waterloo, and the different representatives of the topsy-turvy nations came together and made a new map of Europe. The changes were many, but we have to do only with those of Germany and the countries directly affecting her.

The new “German Confederation” was composed of 39 sovereign States, including the “free cities” (which were just as independent as the States themselves), namely, Lübeck, Bremen, Hamburg and Frankfurt-on-the-Main.

The Diet, or governing body, sat at Frankfurt and decided questions common to all the States, while each was independent in matters that affected it alone.

The president of the Confederation was the Emperor of Austria.

No State could declare war against any other State, nor form any alliance with a foreign power that would be injurious to any one of the States.

The army of the Confederation was composed of troops furnished on the basis of the population of each State, was commanded by officers appointed by the Diet, and its troops garrisoned the fortresses of Luxemburg, Mainz (Mayence) and Landau, which belonged to the Confederation.

Equal civil and political rights were granted to all Christian sects, and constitutional government was to be established in every State.

This new Confederation was composed as follows :

The Austrian Empire, the Kingdom of Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Wurtemberg and Hanover; the Grand-Duchies of Baden, Hesse-Darmstadt, Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Strelitz, Saxe-Weimar and Oldenburg; the Electorate of Hesse-Cassel; the Duchies of Brunswick, Nassau, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Meiningen and Hildburghausen, Anhalt-Dessau, Bernburg and Kothen; Denmark (because of Holstein); the Netherlands (because of Luxemburg); the four Free Cities, and eleven small principalities.

I have already remarked that Austria was the dominant power in the new Confederation, this being due to the ability, skill and powers of intrigue of her leading statesman, Prince Metternich.

Now, while matters looked promising for the Confed-

eration, there were many clogs to the wheels of progress. In the first place, the carrying out of the different provisions was left wholly to the respective rulers of the States ; the people had no political power, and the "representative government" which was promised did not carry with it the right of voting. Whoever the reigning king or duke happened to be, he had the right to appoint the legislative body, whose members, you may be sure, were his friends. Still further, the Diet was forbidden to adopt any new measure or change in any way the form of the Confederation except by a unanimous vote. You do not need to be reminded how almost impossible it is to secure a unanimous vote in any legislative body upon even the most unimportant question.

Referring to the events which followed this great political change, Bayard Taylor says : "The new German Confederation having given the separate States a fresh lease of life, after all their convulsions, the rulers set about establishing themselves firmly on their repaired thrones. Only the most intelligent among them felt that the days of despotism, however 'enlightened,' were over; others avoided the liberal provisions of the Act of Union, abolished many political reforms which had been introduced by Napoleon, and oppressed the common people even more than his satellites had done. The elector of Hesse-Cassel made his soldiers wear powdered queues, as in the last century ; the King of Wurtemberg court-martialed and cashiered the general who had gone over with his troops to the German side at the battle of Leipzig; and in Mecklenburg the liberated people were declared serfs. The in-

introduction of a legislative assembly was delayed ; in some States even wholly disregarded. Baden and Bavaria adopted a Constitution in 1818, Wurtemberg and Hesse-Darmstadt in 1819 ; but in Prussia an imperfect form of representative government for the provinces was not arranged until 1823. Austria, meanwhile, had restored some ancient privileges of the same kind, of little practical value, because not adapted to the conditions of the age ; the people were obliged to be content with them, for they received no more."

But discontent was abroad in the land. Those who had fought in the late wars were resentful because they were not permitted to reap the fruits of their sacrifices. The universities of Germany have always been hotbeds of political discussions, and they bubbled with excitement. Societies were formed with the impelling purpose of bringing about union and freedom. The students gathered in groups to listen to and cheer fiery speeches by their members, patriotic songs were sung, vast quantities of beer drank, and resolutions passed that the rulers looked upon as treason, for the young men were outspoken in their condemnation of the tyranny under which all suffered.

In the month of October, 1817, a grand convention was held at the castle where Luther hid himself from the vengeance of his enemies, and the bold utterances of the immense assemblage of students alarmed those who favored absolutism. There was special indignation against Russia, who, as has long been her custom, had her secret agents everywhere. One of these spies was the dramatic author Kotzebue, who was assassinated by a student.

The incident added to the alarm and distrust, although the crime was the deed of only a single man.

In the summer of 1819 a Congress of Ministers was held in Carlsbad, while the excitement over the killing of Kotzebue was at its height. This body adopted the most drastic measures against the revolutionists, as they were called. They abolished the freedom of the press, forbade the formation of societies among the students, and went so far as to appoint committees to hear what the professors said in their lectures. Some of the most distinguished instructors were turned out of their situations; hundreds of young men were thrown into prison because of their utterances, and the freedom of Germany vanished.

Thus the States were torn by two violent and opposing factions. There were the rulers and their friends who favored absolutism, and the people who demanded liberty in its truest sense and would be satisfied with nothing less. Through it all the country prospered in a material sense; hatreds born of foreign wars gradually died out, and those who let politics alone were secure. Nevertheless, the political bondage of Germany was a sad and sorrowful sight.

You have learned in your History of France of its three days' revolution in 1830, the result of which was to place Louis Philippe on the throne. Germany caught the contagion and there were numerous popular uprisings in different parts of the country, but Prussia and Austria were too powerful to be disturbed. The revolutionists, however, were successful in Brunswick, where the de-

tested Duke Charles was turned out of office, while Saxony and Hesse-Cassel were compelled to accept joint rulers, and an English duke was made Viceroy of Hanover. The German Diet did its utmost to check these movements, but failed, and in some of the smaller States measures of reform were adopted.

With the increase of travel, commerce and industry, the numerous boundaries, with their taxes and custom-houses, became an exasperating nuisance. In 1828 Bavaria and Wurtemberg formed a customs union, which was imitated by Prussia, and, in 1836, all Germany except Austria united in a Tariff Union called the *Zollverein*, which proved of immense advantage and strengthened the spirit of union among the people, though such result was far from the purpose of the law-makers.



Louis Philippe.

Francis II. of Austria died in March, 1837, and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand I., who was only half-witted. In June, 1840, Frederick William III. of Prussia died, and his son, Frederick William IV., succeeded him. He was bright, genial, and had made himself so popular as Crown Prince that everybody was delighted and hopeful.

Matters went on as before in Austria, for Metternich was the real government, as he had been for years. A few trifling concessions were made in Prussia, but those who hoped for a liberal government were bitterly disappointed. The whole aim of Frederick William IV. was to strengthen his throne, and he intensified the despotic measures of his predecessors.

The people were sullen, angry and on the edge of revolution. Outbreaks continually occurred, and matters grew so threatening that Frederick William IV., in February, 1847, ordered the formation of a Legislative Assembly to quell the growing opposition. He made the mistake of other tyrants in having the Assembly composed of representatives of the *provinces* instead of the *people*, who clamored more loudly than before for direct representation. The indignant king closed the Assembly after a short session, having injured his cause more than he had helped it.

Now came the revolution of February, 1848, in Paris, which made Louis Philippe and his family fugitives from that country. When the news of the proclamation of the republic reached Germany, it was like a spark dropped into a powder magazine. The people were thrown

into the wildest excitement, and the air rang with shouts for the freedom of the press and of speech, the right of suffrage and a constitutional form of government in every State. The tumult increased, the first blow being struck in Baden, where the inhabitants attacked the troops, and, after a furious fight, compelled Metternich to surrender his office as minister and scurry out of the country.

Within the following week, Frederick William IV. yielded to the inevitable, but in a fight between the people and soldiers a number of the former were slain. The king announced that all the demands of the revolutionists would be granted, and issued a proclamation in which he declared that from that day henceforth Prussia became merged in Germany.

The Diet at Frankfurt had taken the alarm before this, and invited the separate States to send delegates to that city to draw up a new form for the union of Germany. A few days later, a meeting, including many of the most eminent citizens, was held at Heidelberg, and an agreement made to hold a Provisional Assembly at Frankfurt, as the first step toward the important changes proposed. The response was enthusiastic, and, on the last day in March, a popular representation of all the German States came together.

The first demand that a republic should be proclaimed was rejected, but the principle of the sovereignty of the people was adopted. Schleswig and Holstein, which had revolted against the rule of Denmark, were declared to be a part of Germany, and a committee was appointed to act with the old Diet in calling a National Parliament.

You will admit that the people were making good progress, and hopes among them rose higher than ever before. The first National Parliament of Germany began its sessions in Frankfurt on May 18, 1848. Among the six hundred members were some of the ablest minds of the country, but the great drawback was their lack of political experience. Nearly every man, too, had his pet theory, and no argument could convince him that it was not the true and only cure for their political miseries. Moreover, they made the natural mistake of counting too much on the new enthusiasm of the people and the seeming weakness of the governing classes. Those who favored a republic were in the minority, and the others divided into two parties, one the "Great-Germans," favoring a union of all the States, while the "Small-Germans" wished to exclude Austria from such union. The arguments were earnest and almost numberless, but before adjournment a Provisional Central Government was appointed and the Archduke of Austria was elected "Vicar-General of the Empire." All the States except Austria and Prussia accepted this action, and they neither accepted nor rejected it, but shrewdly waited until they should feel strong enough to crush the whole movement.

The year 1848 was a stormy one in European history. There was a revolt in Schleswig-Holstein early in March, in which, with the help of the Prussian army, the Danes were driven out. Then England and Russia threatened to interfere, and Prussia was compelled to make a truce with Denmark. This action was sustained by the Parliament at Frankfurt, upon which the people were so

enraged that, in September, barricades were thrown up in the streets, and the building where the parliament was in session was stormed. Many of the members would have been lynched had not the mob been driven back by the Prussian and Hessian troops. As it was, two representatives were murdered while trying to escape from the city.

Such shocking violence always causes a reaction, and Prussia and Austria took stern measures to put down the revolution. There were outbreaks of the most dangerous nature in Austria, and more than once her throne seemed to be toppling, but with the help of Russia the uprisings were suppressed and the brave struggle of Hungary for independence came to naught.

Italy, too, was swept by the cyclone of revolution, and at one time she had virtually gained her independence, but in the end Austria again became supreme. Meanwhile, the National Parliament at Frankfurt was wrestling with its many trying problems. A strong effort was made to bring about German union, but Austria and Prussia were too jealous and suspicious of each other to give any help. In Austria the poor idiot Emperor Ferdinand was persuaded to abdicate at the close of 1848, and his nephew, Francis Joseph, a young man, came to the throne. In this year, 1901, he is still reigning as Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION (*Concluded*). 1816–1866.

ON March 28, 1849, the National Parliament elected Frederick William IV. “Hereditary Emperor of Germany,” but Austria protested, Bavaria, Württemberg, Saxony and Hanover refused assent, and the king himself declined the offer. The result was so bitter a disappointment that outbreaks occurred, but in the end all armed resistance was put down.

The parliament gradually melted away, most of the delegates being recalled by their respective States, until the skeleton parliament that was left moved its seat to Stuttgart (*stoot'gart*), where, in June, 1849, the members were ordered to go home by the Württemberg Government. The uprisings in Baden, the Palatinate and on the Rhine were suppressed with vigor, and the Liberals were treated with such harshness that many went into exile in America or England.

Prussia struggled hard against the dominating influence of Austria, and effected a union with Saxony, Hanover and most of the middle and small States, but Austria coaxed Saxony and Hanover to her side, while the sympathy in South Germany was decidedly Austrian, as was the case with Russia. When the dispute had reached the verge of war between Austria and Prussia, Russia was appealed to as an arbitrator; and the emperor decided in

favor of Austria. The latter proposed her terms, which, after some haggling, were accepted by Prussia, in November, 1850. As might have been expected, they were humiliating to Prussia.

In the new Diet, re-established at Frankfurt, in May, 1857, Austria's influence was all-powerful. It was obstructive, hindering, and often destroyed good measures; but Prussia was highly successful in her commercial and customs policy, though the conflict was continuous for years with Austria. Gradually the other States were won over to the side of Prussia on the important question of tariffs and customs, until in the course of time the German *Zollverein* effected commercial treaties with France, Austria, England and Italy.

Prussia held a neutral position in the Crimean war, while Austria blundered from the first. She began by making a treaty with Turkey, the enemy of Russia, and then made an alliance with England and France. By occupying the principalities of the Danube, after their evacuation by Russia, she lost the friendship of that Power for a long time. Then, after all her preparations, she did



Francis Joseph, Emperor of Austria
and King of Hungary.

not go to war with Russia, and thus forfeited the respect of the nations that had counted upon her aid.

Frederick William IV. was stricken with apoplexy in October, 1857, and his brother, Prince William, acted as regent until the death of the king, in 1861. He was sixty years old, and showed himself to be honest, shrewd and patriotic. The hopes of the German people again rose, for he surrounded himself with wise and capable advisers.

In 1859 Sardinia and France agreed upon a war against Austria. Strong pressure was brought on Prussia to aid, but she refused, as she did the demand of Austria that a Prussian army should be placed on the Rhine to prevent Louis Napoleon from sending troops into Italy. Napoleon III., the "nephew of his uncle," proclaimed that he meant to free Italy from the Alps to the Adriatic, and he made a good beginning, for the Austrians were beaten in the two great battles of Magenta, June 4, 1859, and Solferino (*-ree'-no*), June 24th following. Probably Napoleon III. would have kept his promise had he not been warned that if he went further Prussia would take up the cause of Austria. Consequently, he concluded the Peace of Villafranca. Austria gave up Lombardy to the west of the Mincio to the King of Sardinia, and, in March, 1860, Tuscany, Modena, Parma and Romagna (*rö-man'-ya*), by a vote of the people, became subject to the King of Sardinia.

Frederick William IV. died without heirs, in January, 1861, and was succeeded by his brother as King William I. He was a thorough soldier, and the first important

thing he attempted to do was to reorganize and strengthen the army. This meant a great increase of expense, and taxation so burdensome that the Legislative Assembly of Prussia refused to grant the money needed, the opposition coming from Austria and the Middle States. William I. dismissed his liberal ministry and appointed men who rigidly carried out his plan for reorganizing the army in defiance of the Assembly. In September, 1862, Baron Otto von Bismarck-Schoenhausen, who had served as Prussian ambassador to St. Petersburg and Paris, was placed at the head of the government. He was the greatest statesman of modern times, and the man of all others to bring about the unity for which Germany had yearned and striven so long.

Nothing was clearer to Bismarck than that it was impossible for either Prussia or Germany to reach the posi-



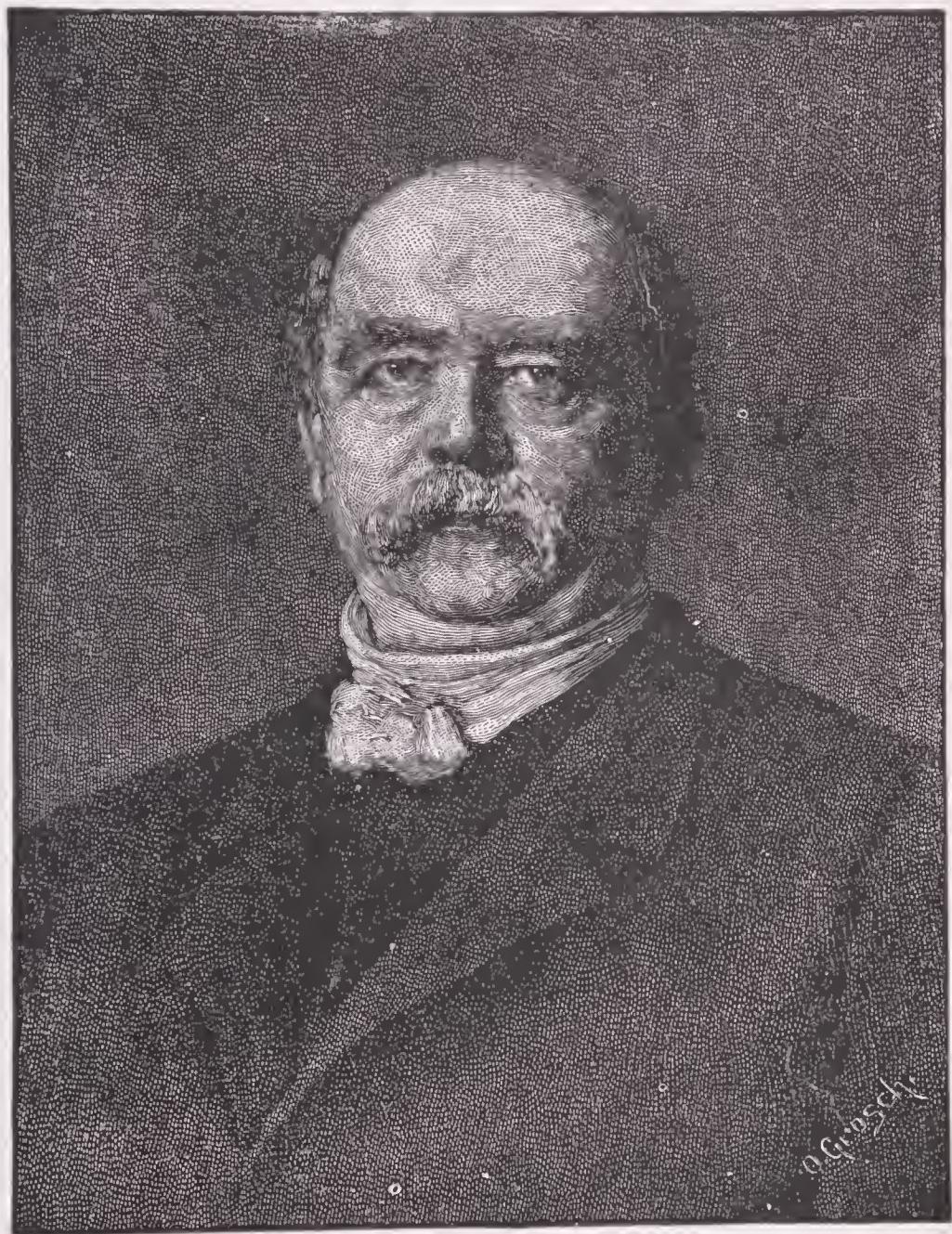
King William I.

tion to which all aspired so long as Austria remained the dominant power. His plan, therefore, was to oust her from that position, and to do it he was willing to make himself the most hated of all men among his countrymen, content to await the time when every one would join in his praises. He was the embodiment of "blood and iron," as was his expression, but he was more than a match for all other diplomats, and his schemes were far-reaching and masterful.

The Prussian Assembly expressed the will of the people, and Bismarck paid no attention, but went on increasing and strengthening the army, for his plan made war at no distant day inevitable. Every election added to the opposition of the Assembly, and the appropriations for the army were refused over and over again, and just as often as they were refused the government took the money and went ahead.

Frederick VII. of Denmark died, and King Christian IX. ascended the throne in November, 1863. He accepted a constitution which took Schleswig from Holstein and added it to Denmark. Since this violated a former treaty, Germany interfered. In December the Diet decided to take armed possession of the Duchies. The following month Austria and Prussia sent an army against Denmark and were successful. Then England, France and Russia interfered, but the negotiations came to naught, hostilities were resumed and Denmark sued for peace. The Duchies were given up, not to Germany but to Austria and Prussia. Complications followed, and in the end it was agreed that Prussia was to govern in Schleswig and Austria in Holstein.

Germany, having been left out of the deal, was angry with both Austria and Prussia. The two powers began quarreling over the future of Schleswig-Holstein. While Austria was willing to make the Prince of Augustenburg the sovereign, Prussia would not consent unless the King of Prussia was given the disposal of the land and sea power of Schleswig and Holstein. This de-



Prince Otto von Bismarck-Schoenhausen.

mand was opposed by Austria, the German Confederation, the Prince of Augustenburg and the Estates of the Duchies, as they were termed. The treaty, which was made in August, 1865, left the question still open as to whether Schleswig-Holstein was to become a sovereign State of the Confederation or enter into a closer confederacy with Prussia. The correspondence between Austria and Prussia was angry, and the former began preparations for war, seeking at the same time to form secret alliances with the smaller States. Neither Austria nor the German people saw how all this was helping the deep-laid plans of Bismarck.

The count, for that rank had been bestowed upon him, foresaw all this years before, and his preparations for it were perfect. In April, 1866, Prussia concluded a formal alliance with Italy, agreeing to assist that country in regaining Venice, while Austria summoned the German Middle States to assist her. Then Bismarck declared the Schleswig-Holstein question a purely German one, and submitted a new draft of reform to the Diet, in which a new Confederation was proposed with Austria excluded, and claiming the chief command of the northern army for the King of Prussia and that of the southern army for the King of Bavaria.

Prussia having invaded Holstein with her troops, Austria demanded of the Diet that the military force of the other States should be called into the field against Prussia, and the only votes against the measure were those of Oldenburg, Mecklenburg and the three free cities in the north. The vote was taken June 14, 1866, and Prussia instantly accepted it as a declaration of war. Bismarck's

time had come, and he set in motion the machinery which he had been constructing with so much care for the past three or four years.

War came so suddenly that people were stunned. Here was Prussia with only nineteen millions of inhabitants arrayed against Austria with fifty millions. The Prussian Assembly had voted five to one against Bismarck, and yet, in the face of all this adverse sentiment and the prodigious power of Austria, he had gone to war against her! Surely he must have lost his mental poise because of chagrin and anger over the want of confidence in him by his countrymen.

But Italy kept a large Austrian force employed in that quarter, though there was fear that France would take the side of Austria. But now came the transformation scene. An electric shock seemed to have thrilled every member of the Prussian government. Each man sprang to his feet, alert, eager and ready for the fray, whose full meaning they saw for the first time.

Note how events swept forward. The declaration of war was made on June 14th. The next day Saxony, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel and Nassau were called upon to remain neutral, and were given twelve hours in which to make up their minds. The time passing without bringing an answer, a Prussian army took possession of Hanover on the 17th, another entered Cassel on the 19th, and a third occupied Leipzig and Dresden on the same day. Expecting the Saxons to destroy the railway bridge between Berlin and Dresden, a temporary one had been prepared and was carried with them by the invaders.

In a battle between the Prussians and double their number of Hanoverians, fought on June 27, a few miles north of Gotha, the Prussians were defeated, but reinforcements soon arrived, and the whole Hanoverian force was compelled to surrender. The soldiers were disarmed and sent home, while the king flitted to Vienna.



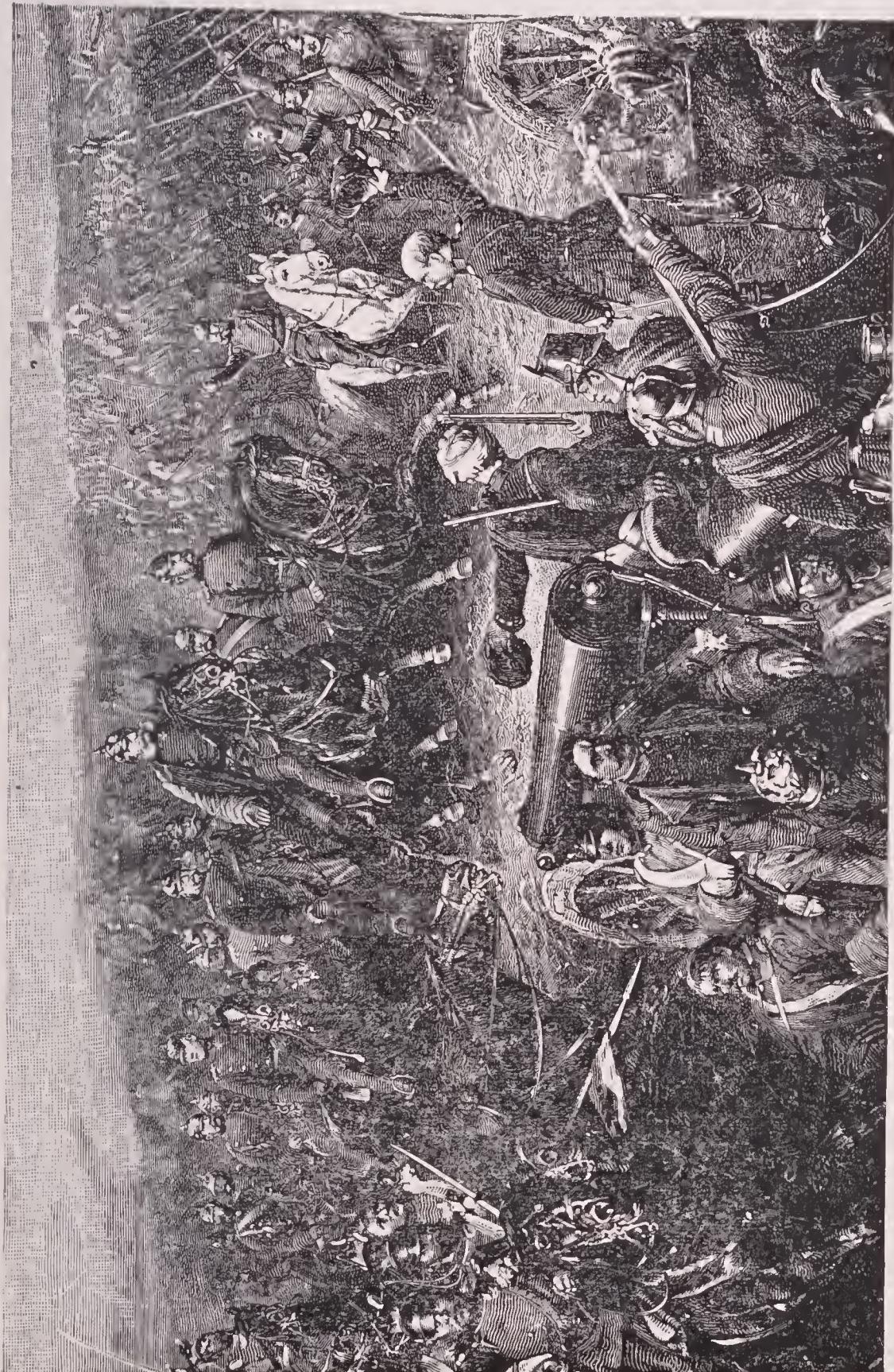
Frederick William.
Crown Prince of Prussia.

Saxony being occupied, the advance upon Austria was begun by the three Prussian armies that had taken the field. Prince Frederick Charles moved in a southeastern direction from Saxony, the Crown Prince Frederick William advanced from Silesia, and General Herwarth von Bittenfield took the course of the Elbe, the whole force being 260,000 with about 800 pieces of artillery. The Austrian army pushing toward the frontier

was about equal in numbers and was commanded by General Benedek.

An Austrian force of 60,000 men was sent forward to meet Frederick Charles, but was defeated and compelled to fall back on the main army under Benedek. The armies of Frederick Charles and Herwarth having united at Gitchin, waited there for the Crown Prince to join them.

The latter had had a hard task. As soon as he crossed



King William I. Pursuing the Austrians at Königgrätz.

The destiny of Central Europe was decided at Königgrätz, or Sadowa, as the battle is often called. It was a bloody and terrible struggle, but the Austrians lost the day and streamed back in disordered masses, closely pursued by King William at the head of his victorious army.

the frontier he was met by the greater part of Benedek's army, and in the engagement of the 27th the Crown Prince was defeated. The battle was renewed the next day, when he won a brilliant victory. Still advancing, he had several other successes, and, on June 30, arrived at Konighof, near Gitchin. There, on July 2, he was joined by King William, Count Bismarck, Von Moltke, the foremost strategist of the age, and the brilliant General Roon. They consulted together, and it was decided to meet Benedek, who was awaiting battle near Koniggrätz, and to fight him with the least possible delay.

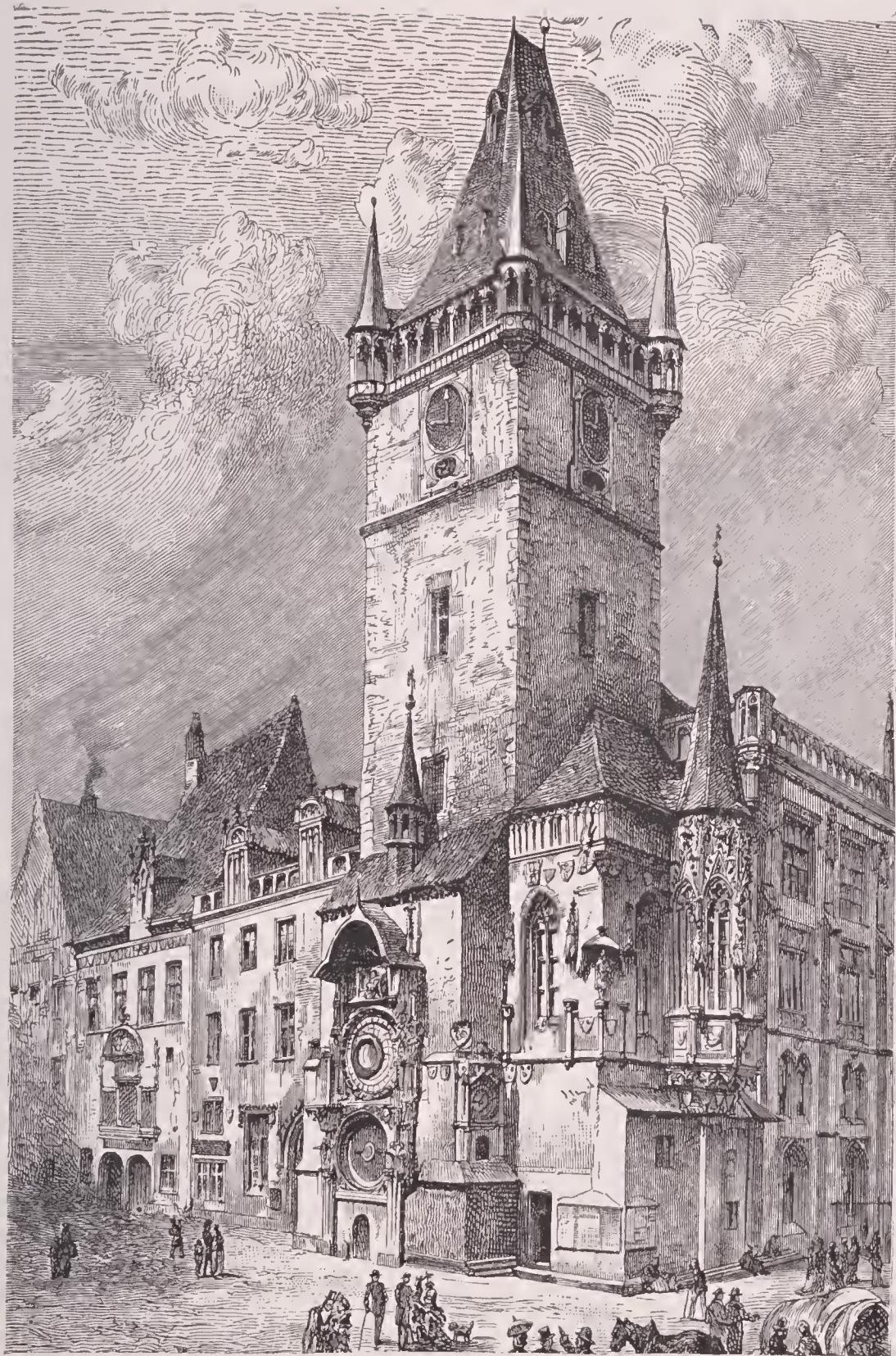


Count Von Moltke.

The Austrian army occupied a powerful position on a range of low hills beyond the small river Bistritz, with the village of Sadowa as the centre. Frederick Charles' army formed the

Prussian centre, and Herwarth's the right wing. These two had to attack and keep all the forces of Benedek engaged until the Crown Prince should arrive from the left and assault the Austrian right flank.

The great battle of Koniggrätz, opened at eight o'clock on the morning of July 3, and raged with terrific fury. Again and again the Prussians charged the Austrian centre, but were beaten back with frightful losses. The Crown Prince was straining every nerve to bring up



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The City Hall in "The Golden City of Prague."

his army, but, as was the case with Blücher at Waterloo, he was delayed by the drenching rain and the boggy ground.

At two o'clock in the afternoon masses of belching smoke on the Austrian right told the thrilling fact that the Crown Prince had arrived. All the Prussian reserves were brought up and a charge ordered along the whole line. The Austrian right and left crumbled under the awful shock, the centre broke, and, with the thunder of the heavens rivaling that of the cannon of the combatants, the Austrian retreat became a headlong flight and panic before the pursuit of the victorious Prussians, with the king himself at their head.

The clouds broke apart, the sun shone forth in all its splendor, and the King and Crown Prince met on the battle-field, and the army's voice rose in the same thunderous anthem of praise which rolled from the throats of Frederick the Great's veterans after the victory on the plains of Leuthen.

Hardly was the battle won when news came that Austria had offered Venetia to France. This pointed to an alliance, and the Prussians acted with a marvelous vigor that has never been surpassed. Within two weeks they were on the Danube, and Vienna fell like ripe fruit into their hands. The Bavarians and other allies of Austria had been swept aside, and Frankfurt was in the hands of the Prussians, who with their newly-invented needle gun were resistless. Austria saw it was useless to continue the struggle, and an armistice, including the preliminaries of peace, was concluded on July 27. Thus ended the Seven Weeks' War, one of the most remarkable in all

history. The treaty of peace was signed at Prague on August 23. Austria, which had so long held her position at the front, now made her bow and walked to the rear of the stage, while Prussia with another bow came to the front, a position which she had fairly earned by as magnificent work as was ever done by soldier or statesman.

The annexation of Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, Schleswig-Holstein and the city of Frankfurt added about 5,000,000 to the population of Prussia. The new Confederation was called the "North-German Union," and being submitted to the other States was accepted by all, February 9, 1867. The parliament elected by the people met in Berlin, and the articles of union were adopted April 16th, when the Power began its existence.

It was composed of all the German States except Bavaria, Wurtemberg and Baden, numbering twenty-two, with a population of 30,000,000, the King of Prussia president of all, and with Bismarck the Chancellor. Bavaria, Wurtemberg and Baden entered into a secret offensive and defensive alliance with Prussia, and, as will be seen, they soon became a part of the union itself.

CHAPTER XIX.

NORTH GERMAN UNION. 1867-1871.

FRANCE was intensely jealous of the growing power of Germany. Less than two generations before the great Napoleon had trampled those plains underfoot, until it seemed that every spark of real life was crushed out of the people. Now, when a nephew of the conqueror of conquerors was on the throne, they had not only dared to raise their heads, but had become a rival Power, whose threatening strength had been demonstrated in one of the most wonderful of all wars with Austria, itself one of the great Powers of Europe. This could not be permitted ; a pretext must be found for a rupture with Prussia, that she might be crushed again. That pretext was sure to present itself before long, and Napoleon III. began his preparations.

And so did Prussia, for the wise Bismarck and Von Moltke saw with the clearness of the noonday sun that the struggle for supremacy with France was an absolute certainty of the near future ; but the German was wiser than the Frenchman, for while France remained the centre of fashion, flippancy, and was corrupt to the core, sturdy Germany wrought with might and main, developing her resources, disciplining and strengthening her armed forces, and making herself intimately familiar with the resources of her rival. German teachers were dis-

tributed throughout France, who, while instructing the youth, carefully gathered all the information within reach. Keen-eyed spies were everywhere, engaged on the same business, and in the War Office at Berlin, Von Moltke, the head of military affairs, had perfect maps of every square mile of the French empire. The width and depth of every stream were known ; the location of every bridge and its dimensions and strength ; the features of the country ; the exact number of men in each branch of the service ; the guns ; the personal characteristics of every officer ; the railway lines and common roads ; in short, the information was as minute, correct and unerring as that possessed by the French authorities themselves ; perhaps it would not be wrong to say it was more so.

In the spring of 1867, Napoleon III. offered to buy Luxemburg from Holland, and nearly succeeded in doing so, when Bismarck made so vigorous a protest that the matter was dropped. A conference of European powers, held in London, decided that Luxemburg should remain with Holland, its neutrality guaranteed, but that Prussia should withdraw her garrison and the fortress should be razed. This settlement of the dispute pleased neither



Napoleon III.

Prussia nor France, but the latter was angrier than the former and eagerly looked elsewhere for an excuse for war.

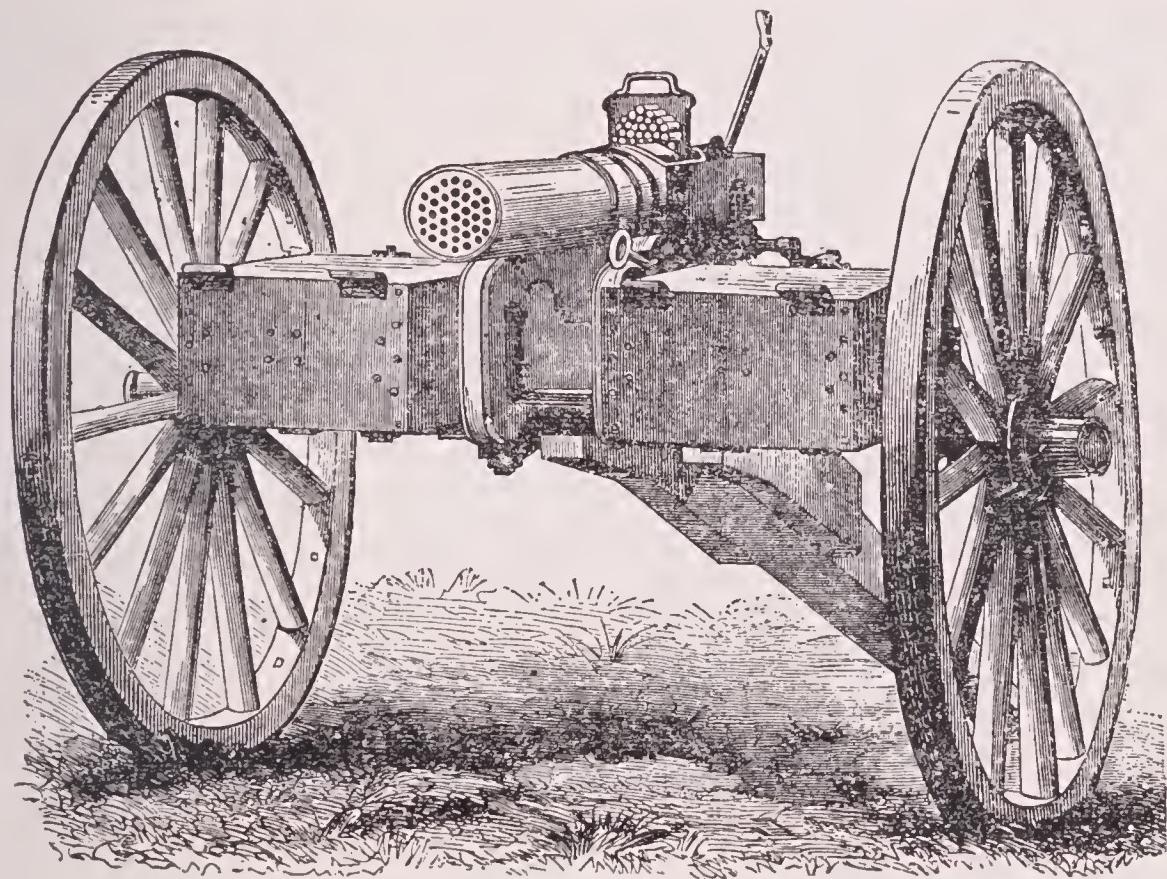
Napoleon III. now sent Count Benedetti as ambassador to Berlin with a proposal for a new treaty of offence and defence. He asked that Prussia should help France to obtain Luxemburg and to annex Belgium, as payment for which Napoleon promised to recognize Prussia's annexations of 1866, and not to oppose the admission of the South German States into the North German Confederation. This offer was repeated in 1870. Bismarck gave no definite answer, but he and Von Moltke and the Prussian authorities strove harder than ever to make ready for the war that was very near.

France would have been blind had she remained ignorant of what was going on in Prussia. She knew of the war preparations on foot, and busied herself at the same grim business. The cause of her hesitation in assisting Austria a short time before was the defective state of her army, which was now newly organized and the terrible Chassepot gun and the Mitrailleuse were introduced. Just as his minister of war informed Napoleon that his plan of campaign was complete, he died, and another had to take his place.

Meanwhile, the French people could hardly be restrained. They were so eager to fly at the throats of the Germans that they could not be held back much longer. The Empress Eugenie and the gay butterflies of fashion by whom she was surrounded, dearly wanted a war with those coarse German barbarians, and it is said that when it did come she clapped her gloved hands and danced

with delight, exclaiming: "This is *my* war!" Ah, if she had been given the power to look a few months ahead, how she would have recoiled in horror!

Poor, decrepit Spain was turned topsy-turvy about this time by a revolution, and her vicious Queen Isabella



Mitraileuse.

was hustled over the border, which being the case, she looked around for a ruler to take her place. She hit upon Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern, a distant relative of William I. of Prussia, and offered him the throne.

Ah, how delighted that made Napoleon III.! It was the very pretext he wanted! It would never do to have a remote relation of the Prussian king on the throne of

Spain, even though he was connected by marriage with the Bonaparte family.

Benedetti, the French ambassador in Berlin, was directed to demand of King William that he should forbid Prince Leopold to accept the offer. The king replied that he had nothing to do with the matter. Within less than a week Prince Leopold declined the proposal.

But this wouldn't do, although it would have satisfied any man with the slightest sense of justice. France must have that excuse for which she was hungering. So a despatch was sent to Benedetti to demand of King William that *never in the future* would he permit Leopold to be a candidate for the Spanish throne. Moreover, the count was instructed to be rude of manner when he made this demand. Benedetti did as ordered. Going to Ems, where the king was taking baths, he walked up to him on the public promenade and roughly insisted that he should give a guarantee that no member of the house of Hohenzollern should *ever* accept the Spanish throne. The insulted king turned on his heel, and soon afterward the French ambassador was notified that he would not be allowed to enter the palace.

Now, Bismarck was just as much of an adept at trickery as Count Benedetti, and he "doctored" the telegrams, so as to inflame the resentment of his people. He wanted war as much as France, and, what was more, was ready for it. The insult to the king was made on the 13th of July, 1870; he returned to Berlin two days later, and on the 19th France formally declared war against Prussia. To use common language, it may be

said that Von Moltke was simply waiting, and, receiving word, now touched the button that put the Prussian armies in motion.

There were no alliances on either side: it was Germany alone against France alone and God help the right!

It is singular that in all the plans of Napoleon III. he counted upon help from the South German States, and yet they were among the most enthusiastic who rallied to the defence of the Fatherland. The war spirit was equally ardent in the two countries, and France was never more confident of triumphant success. All Europe supposed that her armies would make an immediate advance to the Rhine. Napoleon III., as I have said, counted upon revolts in Southern Germany, and also in Hesse and Han-



Prussian Artilleryman.

18—*Ellis' Germany.*

over, and upon an alliance with Austria and Italy, but it has been shown that the German people rose as one man, resolved to die, if necessary, in order to keep their soil from being profaned by the foot of their olden time enemies.

Von Moltke's plan was to attack the main French army wherever found, and to shut off its communication with Paris. Eleven days after the declaration of war, Germany had her three armies, numbering 450,000 men, in motion, while she held 112,000 in reserve. France was able to muster only 310,000, all told, and had not yet crossed the frontier.

General Steinmetz in the north had 61,000 troops, Prince Frederick Charles in the centre had 206,000 and the Crown Prince Frederick William on the south had 180,000, the whole stretching from Treves to Landau, thus assuring the safety of the Rhine. On the same day (August 2d), Napoleon III., with his young son, the Prince Imperial, in company with General Frossard (*fro-sahr*), with 25,000 men, witnessed the attack upon the small unfortified town of Saarbruck, which had less than 2,000 defenders. Of course it fell, and, the news being telegraphed to Paris, threw the city into a spasm of rejoicing. The emperor informed the empress that their son Louis had received his "baptism of fire," and stood it like a little man. This was the one touch of comedy in the midst of grim tragedy.

King William, accompanied by Von Moltke, Bismarck and Roon, went to Mayence to take chief command, while Napoleon III. placed his army in position between Metz,

Strasburg and Chalons. The first move was made by the Crown Prince, who entered Lower Alsace, stormed the town of Weissenburg on the 4th of August and routed a division belonging to MacMahon's army. The latter general brought his whole force together and took a strong position near the village of Worth, where he was attacked on the 6th. The battle was a furious one, with heavy losses on both sides, but the French were defeated, and at night fled in a panic, thus leaving almost all of Alsace open to the Germans. On the same day, Steinmetz stormed the heights of Spicheran (*spe-sheon*) and won a brilliant victory, followed by an immediate advance across the frontier and the capture of an immense amount of supplies.

Napoleon had taken position at Metz. Paris was so enraged by the news of the decisive defeats that the ministry was overthrown, and Marshal Bazaine was placed in chief command. Seeking to unite his forces, after some indecision, with those of MacMahon, he left a garrison at Metz, and retired to Chalons, where he hoped to engage the Germans in a decisive battle; but the French general was completely outmanœuvred by Von Moltke, who delayed the march of the enemy by an attack August 14, and then at Colombey-Nouilly, and on the 16th at



General Frossard.

Vionville, or Mars-la-Tour; on the 18th, the tremendous battle of Gravelotte was fought. On the day named the Germans had 200,000 men together, though in the previous fighting they were much weaker in numbers, and Bazaine commanded 180,000, with the advantage of a much stronger position.

The battle opened in the morning and lasted until stopped by darkness. The French fought with splendid bravery, repelling numerous assaults, but after a time the right wing yielded, the centre and left holding out until the close of the struggle. The victory was a costly one, but Bazaine's retreat was cut off, and he was forced to take shelter behind the fortifications of Metz, which was immediately besieged by Prince Frederick Charles with



Prince Frederick Charles.

200,000 men. The remainder of the army moved on to attack MacMahon and Trochu (*trau-shu*) at Chalons. With the latter were Napoleon and his son.

MacMahon had an army of 125,000 in the camp of Chalons, and was prepared to dispute the German advance upon Paris, but the Minister of War ordered him to make a rapid march up the Meuse to the relief of Bazaine at Metz. He had hardly started when Von Moltke read his purpose and determined to prevent the junction and drive back MacMahon to the Belgium frontier.



Charge of the German Uhlan's at the Battle of Mars-le-Tour.

During the battle of Mars-le-Tour 38,000 marvelously disciplined Germans held Bazaine's 150,000 Frenchmen at bay until reinforcements arrived. Thousands fell, but other thousands swarmed over them. Whole regiments were sacrificed in the tremendous struggle, but eventually the day was won by the Germans.

MacMahon moved rapidly, but his line was the longer, and in the race he was outrun, the extreme right wing of the German army overtaking him August 28 at Stenay on the Meuse. While he was held in check, fresh forces were hurried against him, and on the last day of August he was defeated, at Beaumont by the Crown Prince of

Saxony. Other divisions were pushed forward until the road to Paris was cut off, and nothing was left for MacMahon but to bring his army together and withdraw into the small fortified city of Sedan.

MacMahon had 112,000 men, while the besieging forces numbered 200,000. They planted their batteries on the heights surrounding Sedan, and poured in an awful artillery fire, to which the defenders were unable to make effective reply. Their

only chance was to break through the investing lines at some point, and MacMahon made the desperate attempt on September 1.

The battle opened at daybreak, but MacMahon was soon badly wounded, and the command was turned over to General Ducrot (*doo-crow'*), and some time later to the older officer, General Wimpffen, who was ignorant of the ground and plan of operations. The French infantry melted like snow in the sun before the Prussian artillery



Marshal MacMahon.



Charge of the French Cuirassiers at the Battle of Gravelotte.

The French fought the battle of Gravelotte with a valor worthy of their name, but France lost the greatest of her regular armies on that day. Thousands fell in the desperate fighting on both sides. Gravelotte was the greatest battle of the war, but it by no means ended it.

fire, and the cavalry was cut to pieces by its charges upon the German infantry.

By the middle of the afternoon the French had been driven back at every point, and were huddled together like a demoralized mob. The terrific fire was still going on, when a white flag fluttered through the smoke on the walls of Sedan. The firing instantly ceased, and a message was brought to King William from Napoleon III.: "Not having been able to die at the head of my troops, I lay my sword at your Majesty's feet."

Napoleon withdrew to the castle of Bellevue outside the city, and early the next day he had an interview with Bismarck at the village of Donchery, and made a formal surrender to the king in Bellevue.

CHAPTER XX.

NORTH GERMAN UNION (*Concluded*). 1867-1871.

HISTORY records no such previous astounding surrender as that of Sedan. While the battle was under way, the Prussians took 25,000 prisoners, to whom were now added the remaining 84,000, including 39 generals, 2,300 officers (10,000 men having escaped to Belgium) and 400 cannon. The news startled the whole world. All Germany was filled with rejoicing, and the

sons of the fatherland in the remotest corners of the globe celebrated the wonderful victory. It was so grand, so overwhelming, so glorious that for a time it seemed incredible, but it was true, every word of it, and still greater victories were at hand.

Paris was thrown into a delirium of rage. Napoleon III. was sent to the Castle of Wilhelmshohe, near Cassel, where he received the courteous treatment due so distinguished a prisoner by the Prussian government. He died at Chiselhurst, England, January 9, 1873, from the effects of a surgical operation. With the aid of friends, Empress Eugenie fled from Paris, and thus escaped the fate of Marie Antoinette. The French Chambers declared Napoleon III. dethroned (September 4), the Republic was proclaimed and a Provisional Government formed with General Trochu as President, Jules Favre (*fau-vr*) as Minister of Foreign and Gambetta as Minister of Home Affairs. This new government determined to fight to the bitter end.

Prussia was ready for this decision, and the armies of the two Crown Princes arrived in front of Paris, where, by the 19th of September, they had taken up the positions assigned them by Von Moltke. Trochu had 70,000 men —what was left of the regular army—and, with the circle



General Wimpffen.

of powerful fortresses, it looked as if the capture of Paris was an impossibility, for the besieging forces numbered a little more than 100,000, and other French armies were sure to hasten to the relief of the city.

The Third Army, under the Crown Prince of Prussia, was sent to the south of Paris, the First Army, under the Crown Prince of Saxony, was to the north, while the

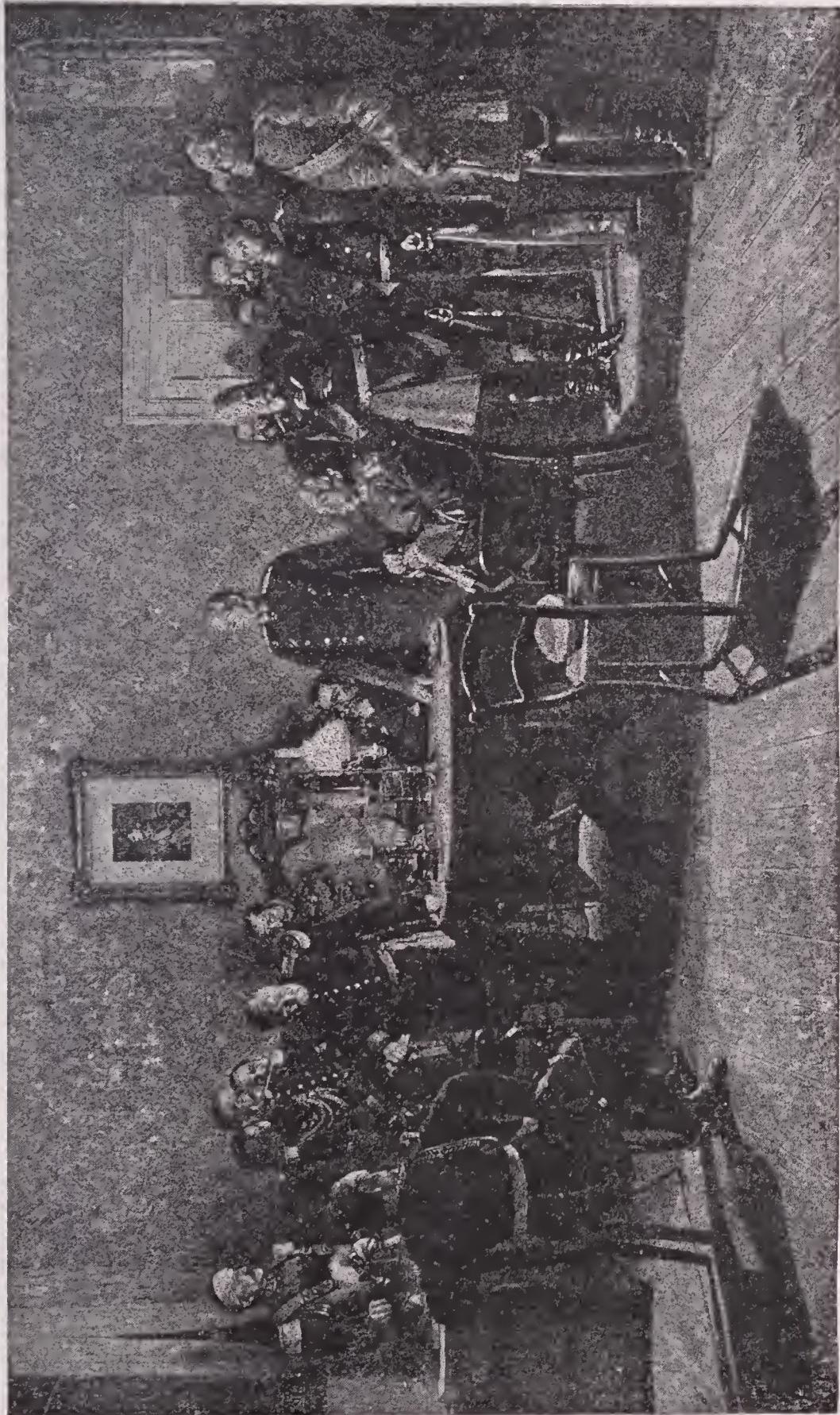
Second Army, under Prince Frederick Charles, was occupied with the siege of Metz. Thus from this time forward the history of the war became mainly a history of sieges.

The headquarters of King William and the Crown Prince of Prussia were at Versailles, where Von Moltke issued his masterly orders for the strategic conduct of the campaign. On the 19th and 20th of September, Favre and

M. Jules Favre.



Bismarck held an interview in which the French Minister of Foreign Affairs said his country was prepared to pay an indemnity, but passionately declared it would never surrender a foot of territory. Bismarck replied that there could be no peace until France ceded the provinces of Alsace and a part of Lorraine with the fortress of Metz to Prussia. Thiers (*teair*), who had been vainly trying to secure the intervention of other governments, repeated the same thing to Bismarck some weeks later and Bismarck repeated his former reply.



The Capitulation at Donchery on the Night of September 1, 1870.

When the Germans threw their first shells into the despairing throng packed within the fortress of Sedan, the pride of Napoleon III. gave way. The city and army surrendered, and the Emperor made his theatrical submission to King William.

The circle around Paris grew more rigid every day. The besiegers were reinforced, and there was need of it. Gambetta escaped from the city by means of a balloon, and used every effort to relieve Paris. Thousands responded to his eloquent calls, and a French army advanced upon Versailles from the Loire, but was defeated by General Von der Tann, who, on October 11, captured Orleans. A large number of French troops moved against the besiegers of Paris, and General Trochu arranged to sally out and help them. A French army drove Von der Tann out of Orleans and compelled him to fall back toward Versailles, but he soon advanced again and received reinforcements, but did not feel strong



M. Leon Gambetta.

enough to attack the enemy, who were intrenched in front of Orleans.

Meanwhile, Marshal Bazaine made several attempts to break through the besieging lines at Metz, but failed, and, on October 28, to escape starvation, he surrendered the town and 3 marshals, 3,000 officers, 173,000 soldiers, 800 fortress cannon and 500 field artillery! This was greater than the victory at Sedan. The Crown Prince and Prince Frederick Charles were made field marshals, and Von Moltke was raised to the rank of count.

In 1873 a court-martial condemned and sentenced

Bazaine to degradation and death, which sentence was remitted to twenty years' imprisonment. He was conveyed to the island of Ste. Marguerite, near Cannes, whence, with the help of his wife, he escaped in the summer of 1874.

Just a month previous to Bazaine's submission, Strasburg had surrendered, and with the restoration of this old town to Germany all Alsace fell into her hands.

The fall of Metz released so immense a force that it was divided into two armies, one of which turned to the north of France under General Manteuffel, while the other, under Prince Frederick Charles, hurried to join the troops on the Loire. The French force was driven from Orleans, which was again occupied. Gambetta placed one division of the army under General Chanzy and the other under Bourbaki. Chanzy suffered several defeats, was driven into Brittany, and the Germans occupied Le Mans and Alencon (*ah-lon-son'*).

General Manteuffel did fine work in the north, where his successes enabled him to occupy Amiens (*ah-me-an'*), Rouen (*roo-en' or roo-on'*) and Dieppe (*de-ep*). He then defeated a force that was advancing to the relief of Paris. Other successes followed, so that, despite the heroism of



Marshal Bazaine.

the French troops, they had been virtually driven out of the north and west of France; but, with a bravery that all must admire, the people kept up their desperate efforts to relieve Paris. A dangerous force appeared in the east, where General Werder, after the capture of Strasburg, had advanced as far as Dijon, which he took and defeated Garibaldi and his red-shirted volunteers. He then re-

repulsed another force advancing upon him from Lyon. Meanwhile, a portion of Werder's army maintained the siege of Belfort, which made a stubborn resistance.

Bourbaki was ordered to attack Werder's army, to relieve Belfort and to secure the lines of communication between Versailles and Germany. With an army of 150,000, he advanced



General Chanzy.

against Werder's corps of 40,000, and compelled him to leave Dijon and take position south of Belfort. In a fierce battle, fought in the middle of January, Werder not only held his own, but forced Bourbaki to retire. Manteuffel, who was on his way to the help of Werder, succeeded by brilliant work in cutting off the French army on three sides and in driving it to the Swiss frontier. Bourbaki was so chagrined that he attempted suicide, but recovered from his wound. The Germans pressed the

French so hard that they were finally pushed over the Swiss frontier on the 1st of February. There they were instantly "interned" by the Swiss. That is to say, all the 90,000 soldiers were compelled to give up their weapons, since they were in neutral territory. They were in a pitiful condition, almost frozen and starving. Many must have perished but for the kind treatment of the Swiss.

The prisoners taken by the Prussians were numbered by armies instead of by hundreds. The interning of this last army removed the only one that seriously threatened the besiegers in front of Paris, toward whom the attention of the world was now directed.

In the city were 400,000 troops of defence, though many were not to be compared with the veterans that had been killed or made captive. Again and again General Trochu made desperate efforts to break through the Prussian lines; but though his men fought with the utmost resolution, and thousands lost their lives, he failed in every instance. The merciless grip of the Prussian bull-dog could not be loosened.

The condition of the inhabitants daily grew worse. It was no special hardship when they were compelled to kill their horses for food, since the French have long insisted that horseflesh is as clean and wholesome as that



General Werder.

of any other animal, and, when you come to think of it, are they not right? I am sure we should agree with them if we had been accustomed to such food, but then we should not like to make a beginning.

Mules are tougher, but, so long as people have them to live upon, they cannot expect much sympathy. But, by-and-by, dogs, cats and rats had to be eaten, and then all the

wild animals in the zoological gardens went the same way, and certainly that was not so pleasant for the famishing people. Then even those animals grew scarce, and, if there had been any plump little boys I am afraid it would not have been safe for them to go strolling about the city, for there is no knowing what might have happened.

Remember, too, that it was the depth of winter and the cold was intense. The shade trees were cut down for fuel, and thousands of dollars' worth of costly furniture was broken up to keep warmth in the bodies, and this did not go on long when people began to look at one another and ask whether it wasn't time to think of surrender.

The French had proven their bravery too many times for any one to doubt it, and so long as there was any reason to hope they would hope. But when the divisions of the army which rushed out to attack the Prussians



General Trochu.

always straggled back, bloody, defeated, and bringing hundreds of dead and dying with them, what folly to keep up the resistance! There were two millions of people in Paris, and it took an enormous amount of food to supply them, and that supply was rapidly running out, with no possible means of obtaining more.

In their extremity, the desperate people made several attempts to overthrow the provisional government. Then Minister Favre on January 23 opened negotiations with Bismarck, and the terms of surrender were concluded on the 28th. The National Assembly called at Bordeaux selected Thiers to join Favre in completing the peace negotiations. The preliminaries were signed February 26, accepted by the National Assembly March 1, and ratified by King William March 3. Between the last two dates a part of Paris was occupied by 30,000 German troops, and the king rode into the city at the head of his brilliant staff. It must have been a proud hour for the old warrior, who could never forget the terrible humiliations which his country suffered at the hands of this nation.

What a prodigious loss had fallen to France! In the seventeen great battles and 150 smaller engagements Germany had taken from her more than 10,000 officers, 385,000 soldiers, twenty-two fortified places, 7,200 cannon and 600,000 stands of arms. Not only that, but by the terms of the treaty concluded at Frankfurt on the 10th of May, she was obliged to give up Alsace, with all its cities and fortresses, except Belfort, and all of German Lorraine, including Metz and Thionville. The territory thus transferred contained a million and a half of people, with an area of more than 5,000 square miles.

Since it is the rule of nations that the conquered Power must pay the cost of being defeated, it was further agreed that France should give Germany a sum of money equal to one billion dollars, and that certain conquered districts were to be occupied by German troops until every cent was paid.

This sum is too vast for you to comprehend, but let me try to give you an idea of its amount. You have seen a double-eagle or twenty-dollar goldpiece. Suppose that each such coin is an inch and a half in diameter, and enough of them were laid side by side to make up the sum named. The length of the line thus formed would be more than 500 miles.

You would think that it took France a good many years to pay this indemnity, but she paid it all before it was due, that is, in about two years, and the last German soldier left the soil of France on September 5, 1873. The behavior of the foreign troops had been so good that the French repeatedly expressed their gratitude and admiration.

Now, one result of the war was inevitable. The three Southern States of Germany were so united in sentiment with the others, that their union with them was completed before the end of the war. Bavaria, Würtemberg and Baden, with the consent of their ruling princes, asked to be admitted to the Union. Since King Louis II. of Bavaria was the most prominent of the rulers of the three States, it was agreed that he should request King William to assume the Imperial office, on condition that it should be hereditary in his family. The other princes

and the free cities united in the call to the monarch of Prussia to become the head of the new German Empire.

The king accepted at Versailles on January 18, 1871, and the North German Union became the new GERMAN EMPIRE. In his proclamation to his people the emperor concluded with these words :

“ May God permit us, and our successors to the Imperial crown, to give at all times increase to the German Empire, not by the conquests of war, but by the goods and gifts of peace, in the path of national prosperity, freedom and morality ! ”

CHAPTER XXI.

NEW GERMAN EMPIRE. 1871-

AND so from the mists and shadows and gloom of the dead centuries the GERMAN EMPIRE emerged in its full majesty and splendor, and entered upon that new career of progress and grandeur which the prophets of the past saw like a star on the dim horizon of the future.

On his return to Berlin, Emperor William opened the first German Parliament elected by a direct vote of the people on March 21, 1871, and to Prince Bismarck he awarded the office of Imperial Chancellor, in recogni-

tion of his immeasurable services which proved him to be the greatest statesman in Europe. It was on the 16th of June following, when the emperor made his brilliant entry into Berlin, that Von Moltke was created field marshal.

Bismarck saw the advantage of a liberal policy, which brought to the government the support of the Liberals and the Nationals, and thus cleared the way for carrying out his important plans. At the same time, he had to face a strong opposition, chief of which were the Ultramontanes, or Papal party, who recognized the Pope as their supreme authority and guide. The Ultramontanes formed the Centre party, around which grouped the discontented elements, including the Particularists, who clung to their little provincial interests; the Danes from Northern Schleswig; Poles from Eastern Prussia; the Social Democrats, and, after a time, the representatives from Alsace and Lorraine. While these factions had widely different aims, they often united against the measures of the government, and you can understand that on such occasions their power was formidable.

The Roman Catholic Church was powerful in Germany, and its supporters were those with whom the battle had to be fought for the maintenance of union and freedom. The fight opened in the beginning of 1872, when Bismarck caused Von Muhler, the reactionary Minister of Culture, to resign his office, and asked Adalbert Falk, an energetic and broad-minded statesman to succeed him. Falk set to work to prepare a series of laws which defined the boundaries between the State and Church, and he carried through the Prussian Assembly an act which made the schools



Emperor William I. and his Victorious Army Enter Berlin.

Three French armies had been captured and a fourth driven into Switzerland during the war of 210 days' duration, of which 180 days were spent in actual warfare. In that time 156 engagements were fought, of which 17 were great battles, and 22 fortresses were reduced.

independent of the Church, and placed their supervision with the State. The Pope was so indignant that he refused to receive Cardinal Hohenlohe, sent as an ambassador to the Vatican, because of his liberal views. You have not forgotten the incident told in the previous pages, in which King Henry IV. waited barefoot in the cold and snow at Canossa for an audience with Pope Gregory VII. The rejection of the Prussian ambassador caused Bismarck to utter the famous exclamation : "To Canossa *we* do not go!"

The quarrel became bitter, and, in answer to a general demand, a law was passed excluding the Order of Jesuits, the principal advisers of the Pope, from the empire. Before the close of the year the law was carried into effect, and all the institutions belonging to the Jesuits were closed. In the face of the passionate opposition of the Ultramontanes, the laws defining the distinct provinces of the State and Church were passed during the year 1873. The Prussian episcopacy openly rebelled ; the Catholic clergy closed their doors against the government supervisors and showed their insubordination in every way possible. Then the government withdrew its appropriations to Roman Catholic seminaries and schools, and a number of the latter were closed ; some of the rebellious prelates were fined or imprisoned, and finally declared out of office, the endowments of their dioceses being administered by lay officials. The following year civil law marriage was made obligatory throughout the empire, the act being a strong blow against the clergy. This was followed by other legislation, in the face of protests by the Pope and

clergy, and there is no saying where the wrangle would have ended had not a diversion taken place in 1876.

All this time the work of reform was going on, and the measures meant to cement German unity were well supported in the assemblies of the various States, and in the Parliament itself. The assemblies had their representatives in the national capital, the body being known as the Bundesrath, or Council of the Federation. Any measure of the Federal government affecting the whole empire had to be submitted to the Bundesrath and sanctioned by that body before it could be acted upon by Parliament. In September, 1872, the Emperors of Germany, Austria and Russia met in Berlin to renew their assurances of distinguished consideration and prove to the world how much they loved one another.

I remember that this famous meeting was the cause of one of the best cartoons ever printed by that comic paper, the London *Punch*. It represented three jumping-jacks, each with the face of one of the emperors, dancing and flinging their arms as a gigantic man behind them jerked the string. This man was Bismarck, and the keen satire and truth of the jest tickled everybody.

Bismarck showed his wisdom also by strengthening the friendship between the reigning families of Germany and Italy, and even succeeded in smoothing the ruffled feelings of Denmark over the loss of Schleswig-Holstein. France, however, sulked, and was foolish enough to brood over schemes of revenge. She began to reorganize and strengthen her army, and of course Germany did the same, for you may be sure she was too alert to be caught

napping. Fortunately, the rising war clouds of 1875 dissolved without emitting any lightning.

The treaty made at San Stefano proved unsatisfactory to some of the European Powers, notably so to Great Britain. A Congress was therefore called at Berlin in 1878, attended by representatives from Germany, England, Russia, Austria, France, Italy and Turkey, and was presided over by Prince Bismarck. At this Congress the partial partition and ratification of the boundaries of Turkey were decided upon. The result of the Treaty of Berlin was the loss of 71,000 square miles of territory by Turkey.

Now, a great deal of money was necessary for Germany to carry out her reforms, and the income of the empire was insufficient. A higher protective tariff was demanded, and, to carry the measures through Parliament, the Chancellor had to secure the support of a majority. This gave the Centre its chance, and the shrewd Bismarck had to make a compromise. A conciliatory policy was adopted in matters affecting the Catholic Church, and Falk, finding himself powerless, resigned in 1879, and was succeeded by a reactionary Minister of Culture. A revision of the rigid laws was made in 1882, the rebellious bishops were allowed to return, the ecclesiastical institutions were reopened, the hungry clergy received their salaries, and the Pope agreed that henceforth the appointments of ecclesiastics should be duly sent to the German government.

The Social Democrats made a great deal of trouble, and right here let me impress upon you the distinction between a Socialist and an Anarchist. To the former

The Congress of Berlin.

Mainly through the efforts of England, representatives of the great European Powers assembled in Berlin. The largest number of diplomats who ever signed a treaty were present, and the treaty itself, which the distinguished body signed on July 13, 1878, is said to have been the longest ever written.



belong many of the best citizens of the empire. Their aim is not to tear down and destroy, but rather to build up. When the world is filled with so much poverty and suffering, with a few favored ones rolling in wealth, to which it may be said they have the legal and moral right, the Socialists feel that something is wrong in society and a change is needed, by which the conditions of all classes may, so far as possible, be equalized. *How* this is to be brought about is the momentous problem, which remains to be solved ; but since the government controls the post-office, the Socialists would have it also take charge of the railways, savings banks and other industries, administering them for the benefit of all classes.

The Anarchists do not believe in government at all. They would destroy all laws, all rulers, all restraints and tear up society by the roots. It is from their ranks that the most dangerous foes of any country come. A few years ago they committed atrocious crimes in Chicago and other places, and a number of the most guilty were hanged, but since then they have ceased to vex us. A Socialist may be defined as a man who wishes the government to do everything ; an Anarchist as one who opposes the government doing anything. In May and June, 1878, the Anarchists made several attempts to take the life of Emperor William. The Chancellor, the man of "blood and iron," was not the one to trifle with such miscreants. He caused a bill to be drawn up intended to crush them, but it was rejected by Parliament, whereupon the Chancellor in the name of the emperor dissolved the body, and in the new elections secured enough votes to pass the law,

which was made operative for two years and a half and was renewed several times. The fact, however, remains that neither the repressive measures of Bismarck, nor the conciliatory policy of the young Emperor William II. have weakened the Socialists. They are a great power in Germany to-day, still increasing, and of necessity must exert a tremendous influence in the future life of the empire.

In 1881 new protective measures were adopted ; spirits were taxed ; a new duty was put on cereals and the customs were increased. Then an important and far-reaching scheme was put in force, which required years to carry to completion. Its design was the beneficent one of bettering the condition of the laboring people, and it consisted of a series of insurances for laborers, to help them against losses from sickness, accidents and old age. Such insurances were made compulsory, the expense being divided among the employers, the government and the laborers themselves. This was one of the wisest measures ever conceived, and the good it wrought to Germany is beyond estimate.

At the same time, the commercial policy of the country became strongly protectionist, and in 1884 a new colonial policy was set on foot, in order to provide outlets for the surplus population and markets for the rapidly increasing



Emperor William I. in Imperial Robes.

manufactures. This led to Germany acquiring extensive territories in Western Africa, New Guinea, several islands of the South Pacific and in China.

This whole scheme, however, after sixteen years' trial, has proven a failure. Red tape, militarism and the German character killed it. Nature evidently did not intend Germany, any more than it intended France, for a colonial power. It would seem that the field belongs exclusively to Great Britain and the United States.

Emperor William, who had passed the age of ninety, began to fail, and in March, 1888, passed away. His son, the Crown Prince, fifty-six years of age, was at San Remo, Italy, suffering from a fatal disease,—cancer of the throat,—but he started at once for home, and on March 9 began his reign of ninety-one days. He died June 15, 1888, and was succeeded by his son, William II., born January 27, 1859.

There was much misgiving, when the new emperor came to the throne, before he was thirty years old. He was known to be impulsive, restless, and a soldier through and through. No man ever had more versatility or more impetuous energy. He seems to be able to turn his hand to anything—painting, literary work, dramatic composition, seamanship, statecraft, war—and to acquit himself equally well in all. Sometimes his impulsiveness has led him to do unkindly things, but the impulse itself is always honorable. He has set a commendable example of domestic virtue, and, although claiming to be the "war lord" of the empire, has steadily and successfully worked for peace. There was no sincerer mourner at the bedside of

the dying Queen Victoria, in January, 1901, than her royal grandson of Germany, and his tribute of filial affection won the hearts of all England. What finer tribute can be rendered him than to recall the fact that, although at this writing he has been supreme ruler more than thirteen years, Germany has not been involved in a single war nor is there seemingly any prospect of such a calamity, though the air has throbbed more than once with alarming rumors of trouble? With so many opposing parties to conciliate and mould to his will, no one could surpass the emperor in managing the vast and complicated interests of his empire.

The genius of William II. for labor and grasp of every department of industry throughout his immense domain equals that of the great Napoleon himself. His power is felt everywhere. He was the prime mover in constructing the Baltic Canal, opened in June, 1895, by which the route was shortened for ships from Western Europe to



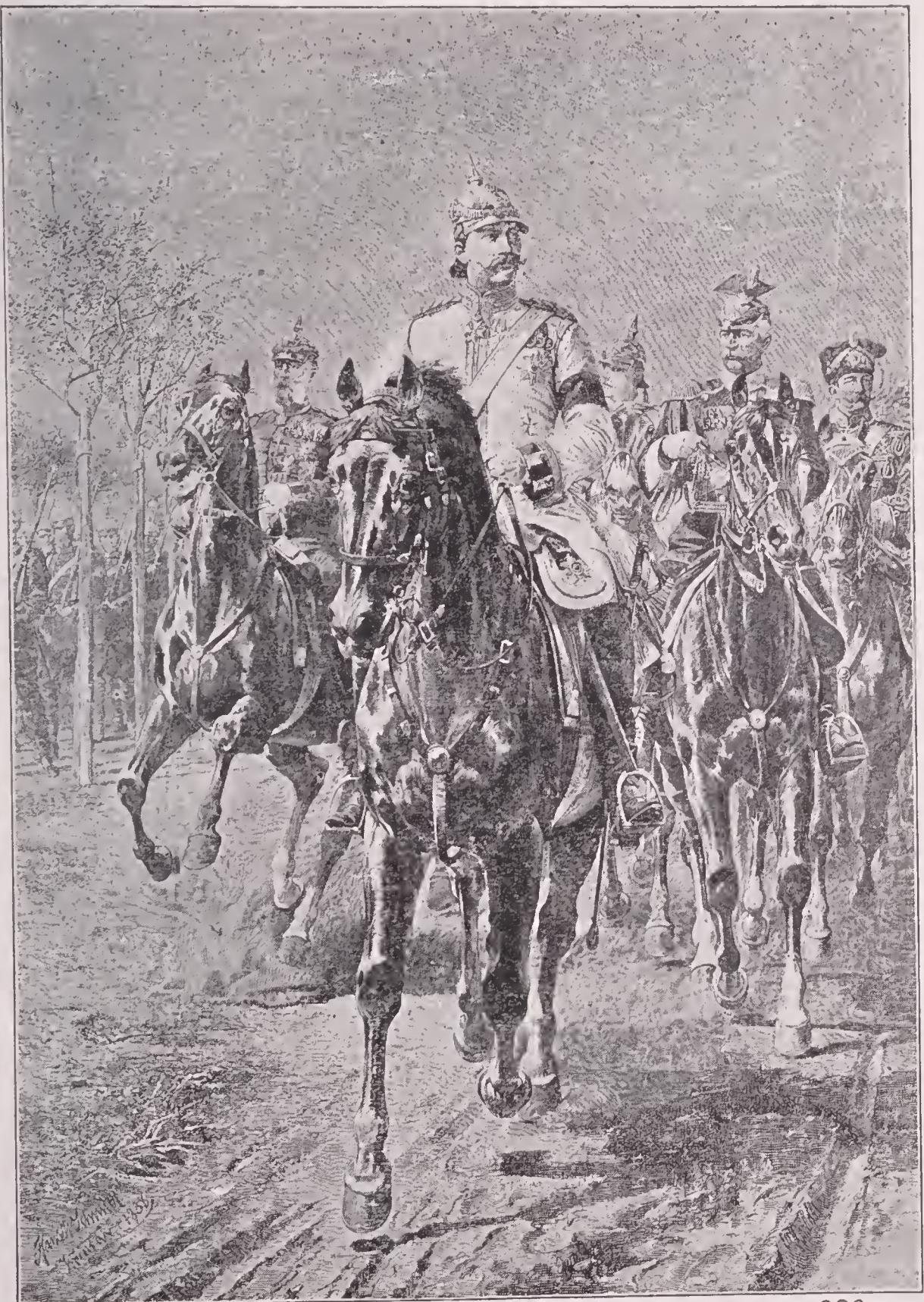
William II., Emperor of Germany.

the northern ports, and his patriotic magnetism penetrates to the remotest corner of his country and to the smallest detail of the industries of common life.

Germany was startled in March, 1890, when it became known that Prince Bismarck had sent his resignation to the young emperor and that he had accepted it. Many saw in it disaster to the empire, but such fear soon vanished. Bismarck had done one of the grandest works ever accomplished by man, but it was complete. He had rounded out his mission, for which his country will always be grateful, and the time had come for the reign of new ideas, of which William II. was the vigorous exponent and the life. There was a great "shrinkage," however, in the Chancellorship when General Caprivi assumed it. He was an honest soldier, and that was all. He tried to cultivate the Liberals and to please everybody, but pleased nobody, and had to give way to Hohenlohe, who was immeasurably his superior in every respect, for he is a wise old diplomat and statesman.

The first difference between the emperor and Bismarck was over the question of Socialism. The latter favored the sternest repressive measures, while the former believed in conciliation,—for listening to the complaints of the laboring classes and remedying them so far as possible by arbitration and wise legislation. This course was adopted, but, as I have already stated, without in the least diminishing the continually growing strength of Socialism.

In 1890, through an agreement with England, the empire came into possession of the island of Heligoland, whose full value can not be shown until the breaking out



of war. In this arrangement England got about one thousand per cent. the better of the bargain, which, perhaps, was to be expected. The Triple Alliance was renewed the following year and tended to the promotion of peace in Europe.

Those sturdy Germans live a long time, for when Field Marshal Count Moltke died, April 24, 1892, he was more than ninety years old and in the full enjoyment of his powers. Bismarck passed away at a youthful age, as compared with the field marshal and the king, for at his death, July 30, 1898, he was only in his seventy-fourth year.

In closing my little history of Germany I will quote the words uttered to me in a conversation with one of the most distinguished professors of Berlin, and a man whose knowledge of his country and its leading statesmen and generals is not surpassed by any of his countrymen :

“ King William I. was an admirable character—honest, religious, straightforward and patriotic to the core. We all love and revere his memory. He was not brilliant, but he was sensible, shrewd, brave, simple in his tastes, and wise enough to recognize the ablest men in the empire, and to use them as his advisers.

“ Frederick III., his son, is generally referred to in extravagantly complimentary language, and many believe he would have made one of the greatest emperors of Germany had his life been spared. There are several causes for this feeling toward him : the general sympathy for his intense suffering, heroically borne, his superb physical appearance and his winning personality ; but, in spite of

all this, it was fortunate for us that he died before he fully grasped the reins of government, for he had not the first qualification for its tremendous responsibilities and demands.

“To begin with, he was married to the eldest daughter of Queen Victoria, who was thoroughly English at heart, and she dominated him in everything. When the Crown Prince was in the field against France he made a good record, but every one knows that the real credit of his victories belongs to the genuine generals associated with him. It was they who furnished the brains, while the Crown Prince got all the glory, just as was the case when the king commanded the armies and had Von Moltke, Von Roon and Bismarck at his elbow.

“During that war Bismarck was exasperated more than once to find that the matters discussed at the councils of war speedily became known to the enemy. This could only take place through some member of the conference ‘leaking.’ It came about in this way: The Crown Prince told his wife everything; she lost no time in sending the news to England, whence it instantly came back to the French leaders. It did not take Bismarck long to discover the explanation, and he stopped the leak by excluding the Crown Prince from the councils. I do not say that Frederick had any intention of wronging his country; on the contrary, it contained no more devoted patriot, but his habit of ‘blabbing,’ as you Americans term it, shows his weakness.

“His wife’s ambition was to be Empress of Germany. The Prussian law will not permit any one to become ruler

who is physically or mentally stricken, and that fatal disease of the Crown Prince would have excluded him had it been generally known. It was necessary to prolong his life and to conceal his real state, so as to permit his coronation. So the wife dismissed the German physicians, whose skill was unsurpassable, and brought over Dr. McKenzie, her English expert. He bolstered up the Prince and succeeded in concealing his real condition until after he was crowned. That made his wife empress, satisfied her ambition, and then, when it was too late, the German physicians were called in and our new emperor died. Had he lived, the real ruler of Germany would have been the daughter of the Queen of England.

"As for William II.—God bless him! He is stronger this year than he was last year, and he will be stronger next year than this. If there ever was such a thing as the right man in the right place, his is an example. He is a steam engine for work; I don't believe there is a person in all Germany that equals him in this respect; his energy is marvelous and he never spares himself. It may be said that all questions interest him, and he makes himself master of each. There is nothing too trifling for his attention if it concerns his country in any way, and his example more than any argument tends to convert one to a belief in the divine right of kings. In him is exemplified the genius of common sense; he is not incrusted with prejudice, and boldly meets every condition and question that presents itself, his sole aim being to solve it in the way best for those concerned and for his country. Gifted by nature with the mind and brain of a

master, he does his own thinking, and does it better than any one can do it for him. So long as he is at the helm of government, so long is Germany safe, and God grant that when in the fulness of time he is called to his reward we may be given one as worthy as he to rule."

"

EMPERORS AND KINGS OF GERMANY.

CARLOVINGIANS.

A. D.

771.	Charlemagne, or Charles I. (the Great).	876.	Charles II. (the Bald). Carloman, Louis III. (the Saxon). Charles III. the Fat (king).
814.	Louis I. (le Debonnaire).	882.	Charles III. (emperor).
840.	Lothaire I.	887.	Arnold I. (king).
843.	Louis II. the German (king).	896.	Arnold I. (emperor).
855.	Louis II. (emperor).	899.	Louis IV. (the Child).

HOUSE OF FRANCONIA.

911. Conrad I.

HOUSE OF SAXONY.

919.	Henry I. (the Fowler).	973.	Otho II.
936.	Otho I. (the Great King).	983.	Otho III.
962.	Otho I. (emperor).	1002.	Henry II. (the Holy).

HOUSE OF FRANCONIA (*Restored*).

1024.	Conrad II. (the Salique).	1081.	Herman of Luxemburg (elected by the Pope).
1039.	Henry III. (the Black).		
1056.	Henry IV.	1037.	Conrad.
1077.	Rodolph of Suabia (elected by the Pope).	1106.	Henry V

HOUSE OF SAXONY.

1125. Lothaire II.

HOUSE OF SUABIA, OR HOHENSTAUFFEN.

1138.	Conrad III.	1203.	Otho IV. (alone).
1152.	Frederick I. (Barbarossa).	1215.	Frederick II.
1190.	Henry VI.	1246.	Henry (of Thuringia).
1197.	{ Philip. Otho IV. (of Brunswick).	1247.	William of Holland (chosen by the Pope).
		1250.	Conrad IV.

INTERREGNUM.

1254.	William of Holland (merely nominal).
1257.	{ Richard of Cornwall (merely nominal). Alfonso of Castile (merely nominal).

HOUSE OF HAPSBURG.

1273.	Rudolph (of Hapsburg).	1298.	Albert (of Austria).
1292.	Adolphus (of Nassau).		

HOUSES OF LUXEMBURG AND BAVARIA.

1308.	Henry VII. (of Luxemburg).	1378.	Wenceslaus (of Luxemburg). ¹
1314.	{ Louis V. (of Bavaria). Frederick (of Austria).	1400.	Rupert (Count Palatine).
1347.	{ Charles IV. (of Luxemburg). Gunther (Count of Schwarz- burg).	1410.	{ Jossus (of Moravia). Sigismund (of Luxemburg).

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

1438.	Albert II.	1612.	Matthias.
1439.	Frederick III.	1619.	Ferdinand II.
1493.	Maximilian I.	1637.	Ferdinand III.
1519.	Charles V.	1658.	Leopold I.
1556.	Ferdinand I.	1705.	Joseph I.
1564.	Maximilian II.	1711.	Charles VI.
1576.	Rudolph II.	1742.	Charles VII. (of Bavaria).

Emperors and Kings of Germany.

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HOUSE OF AUSTRIA (HAPSBURG-LORRAINE).

1745.	Francis I.	1806.	Extinction of the German Empire.
1765.	Joseph II.	1815.	German Confederation.
1790.	Leopold II.	1867.	North-German Union.
1792.	Francis II.		

NEW GERMAN EMPIRE.

1871.	William I. (of Prussia).	1888.	{ Frederick III. William II.
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POPULATION AND AREA OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE IN 1900.

	Population.	Area.	Capitals.
German Empire.....	52,279,901	211,108	Berlin.
Prussia.....	31,855,123	134,467	Berlin.
Bavaria.....	5,589,382	29,291	Munich.
Saxony.....	3,500,513	5,789	Dresden.
Wurtemburg.....	2,035,443	7,531	Stuttgart.
Baden.....	1,656,817	5,803	Karlsruhe.
Alsace-Lorraine.....	1,603,987	5,602	Strasburg.
Hesse.....	956,170	2,965	Darmstadt.
Mecklenburg-Schwerin.....	575,140	5,137	Schwerin.
Hamburg.....	622,530	158	
Brunswick.....	372,580	1,425	Brunswick.
Oldenburg.....	341,250	2,479	Oldenburg.
Saxe-Weimar.....	313,668	1,387	Weimar.
Anhalt.....	247,603	906	Dessau.
Saxe-Meiningen.....	214,697	953	Meiningen.
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.....	198,717	760	Gotha.
Bremen.....	180,443	99	
Saxe-Altenburg.....	161,129	511	Altenburg.
Lippe.....	123,250	472	Detmold.
Reuss (Younger line).....	112,118	319	Gera.
Mecklenburg-Strelitz.....	98,371	1,131	Neu Strelitz.
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt.....	83,939	363	Rudolstadt.
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen....	73,623	333	Sondershausen.
Lubeck.....	76,485	115	
Waldeck.....	56,565	433	Arsolsen.
Reuss (Elder line).....	53,787	122	Greiz.
Schaumburg-Lippe.....	37,204	131	Buckeburg.
German Africa.....	5,950,000	822,000	

THE GERMAN GOVERNMENT.

Political Divisions in the Reichstag.

Parties.	Number of Members.
German Conservatives.....	54
Imperialists.....	23
National Social Reform Party (Anti-Semites).....	9
Centre (Clericals).....	104
Poles.....	14
National Liberals.....	48
Liberal Union.....	12
Liberal People's Party	29
National People's Party.....	8
Social Democrats.....	55
Alsatian (meaning Anti-German)	8
Independent (unclassified).....	30
Total (with two vacancies).....	396

The largest group, the Clericals or Centre, represents mainly the Rhine districts and South Germany. The Conservatives, though sometimes in opposition, especially on agrarian questions, are regarded as the ministerial party, and with them are allied the National Liberals and some smaller groups, insuring the government a majority.

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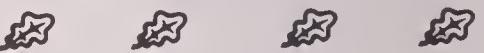
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